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The Outlook

FEBRUARY 18, 1911

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THE INSURRECTION IN MEXICO

War is going on within sight of the United States border line—not on a large scale, to be sure, but still war. The town of Ciudad Juarez, which has been the bone of contention between the Mexican insurrectos and Federal troops, is just across the Rio Grande River from El Paso, a well-known Texan town, so that the residents of El Paso have been able to see skirmishing and maneuvering from day to day, and their usual close relations with their Mexican neighbors have been broken off. It is even reported that automobile "sight-seeing parties to the battlefield" are doing a fine business. Aviators giving an exhibition in El Paso were warned not to cross the Mexican line. When it is remembered that Juarez is at least fifteen hundred miles from Mexico City, and that it is only one of the points where insurrection has come to a head in a country of immense extent and very poor railway communications, the difficulty of dealing with the present kind of rebellion is apparent. Nowhere do the disaffected element, of which General Madero is the head, bring into the field a formidable force as compared with Mexico's military resources, but the insurrectos appear in widely separated districts, seize some place of moderate importance, and when the Federal troops are brought to bear on them, take to the hill country. What effect such a desultory and guerrilla-like rebellion will have on President Diaz's political strength it is hard to say. At present the rebellious movement is rather troublesome than formidable. A correspondent in Mexico gives The Outlook the following statement of the causes of the insurrection: "The opposition to President Diaz is due to the fact that he has not recognized the younger and more progressive men in Mexico. A chief cause of complaint is that the elections are shams; that both the legislative and judicial officers are really designated by the President rather than elected; and that the Supreme Court is not in fact a judicial body, but is dominated by Executive influence. It is a feeling among some business men, both Mexicans and foreigners, that a few rich men, Mexicans, control in a large measure the granting of privileges and concessions, and that such grants have been made more for the benefit of the private interests than the public welfare. The immediate cause of the present revolution was the treatment accorded Madero and those with him who opposed Diaz's election." Last week it was thought that General Orozco, commander of the insurrectos, might easily have captured Juarez, but he evidently was not anxious to put his little army in a position where retreat to the north would be impossible because of the United States border, while on other sides there was danger of being cut off from the hill country by the arrival of Federal troops. Both sides have been expecting reinforcements, and apparently each has hoped to attack the other's reinforcements before a junction should be formed. Meanwhile there have been a little fighting and a few casualties.

THE OPENING OF A MOMENTOUS PARLIAMENT

The first Parliament of the reign of King George the Fifth was opened with elaborate ceremony by the King on Monday of last week. The King and Queen proceeded in state from Buckingham Palace to

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Westminster, and in the "gilded chamber" of the House of Lords the King read the Speech from the Throne. The Speech was brief and formal, and contained references to but two proposals for legislation. One is the Government's bill for disposing of the veto of the House of Lords, the other legislation to provide insurance for workingmen against illness and unemployment. Of these proposals the first is of course immensely the more important. It involves the issue upon which the last general election was directly fought, and upon which, in conjunction with the famous Lloyd-George Budget, the previous election was contested. At both those elections the Progressive coalition, composed of Liberals, Laborites, and Irish Nationalists, won a decisive victory. Each time the coalition secured a majority over the Unionists of 124—a majority composed of dissimilar elements, but a unit on the question of the Lords' veto. The Government will proceed at once with the Parliament Bill, introduced in the last Parliament, and practically rejected by the Lords. The Government, the Prime Minister announced in the House of Commons, will monopolize the time of the House until Easter with the purpose of getting the veto question settled before the coronation, which takes place in June. Apparently, with his united majority at his back and with the prestige of two successful elections, Mr. Asquith will be able to write the Government's veto measure into the British Constitution without delay. The Lords will doubtless continue to balk at being deprived of so much of their power, but even they must yield to the final weapon available to a Prime Minister who is unmistakably supported by the country. The Crown can overcome a hostile majority in the House of Lords by "swamping" it with newly created peers of the minority party, and apparently, in the circumstances, the Crown *must* "swamp" the House if the Lords will not surrender and the Government insists. Doubtless the Veto Bill will become a law, but doubtless not without fireworks and sounds of battle. But it is always dangerous to predict in clean-cut terms just how the British will settle any controversy. One thing only is generally sure. To use the words of an English visitor to this country, "whatever the result, it won't be as bad as anybody expects." The British have an ineradicable propensity for what they picturesquely call "muddling through," otherwise solving problems by compromise, and by adopting a mutually not too disagreeable third best in place of a philosophic best. Whatever is the final adjustment of the relations of the two houses of the British Parliament will probably be "by consent," for no other adjustment could long remain undisturbed. The process of arriving at that ultimate solution will be an interesting one to watch.

THE DUKE OF CONNAUGHT AND RECIPROCITY

The appointment of his Royal Highness the Duke of Connaught as Governor-General of Canada, to succeed Earl Grey, is officially announced. The Duke will enter upon his office next September, and is to hold the appointment, not for the usual five-year term, but for two years, subject, however, to further extension. Doubtless some glamour will now be added to social and official life at Ottawa; doubtless stricter etiquette will obtain there; but the appointment is, of course, chiefly significant as marking the final step in the Dominion's evolution from a colony into a nation of practically equal status with Great Britain. For in this appointment Canada advances more definitely than ever to the first place among the component parts of the British Empire. No other part of that Empire ever had a royal prince at its head. The Duke of Connaught is King George's uncle and Queen Victoria's only surviving son. He is sixty-one years old. His wife is the daughter of the late Prince Frederick Charles of Prussia, who won distinction by his gallantry in the Franco-German War. The Duke and Duchess have three children. The eldest is the beautiful Princess Margaret Victoria, now Crown Princess of Sweden; the second is Prince Arthur, already a useful member of the royal family; the third is the sprightly and popular Princess Victoria Patricia. As the Duke of Connaught was selected for the Canadian post during the lifetime of his brother Edward VII, the assumption seems somewhat gratuitous that the appointment was

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designed, in the words of the London "Standard," "to counteract the possible injurious effect of Dominion loyalty as seen in the commercial approximation of Canada and the United States." "Has Canada," the London "Daily Mail" inquires, "in growing nearer to the United States, set her foot on the road of separation from Great Britain?" As might be expected, the ultra-Conservative London "Morning Post" declares that Canada, in drawing closer commercially to the United States, diminishes her loyalty to the Empire's "defense interests and moral interests." Does she? Not if history is any guide. Little more than half a century ago Lord Elgin negotiated a reciprocity treaty between Canada and the United States. The consequent trade relations, lasting from 1855 to 1866, so far from swinging Canada's "defense interests and moral interests" away from Great Britain, only emphasized them as essentially British. Before 1855 there had been considerable talk in Canada of annexation to the United States, but after that date the agitation was lulled. The reciprocity relations gave to Canada the chance to feel herself a nation, but the commercial independence did not jar the political independence. Mr. Balfour and Lord Lansdowne, the English Conservative leaders, know this, and yet the one declares that the proposed reciprocity would be "an Imperial disaster," and the other says that the history of the Empire will be altered if the Dominion develops "not on national and Imperial lines, but according to geographic conditions." In other words, the Dominion should be developed, not through the channels opened by nature, but through artificial channels! Fortunately, the Government at London is under the control of the Liberals, and they are in hearty agreement with the Canadian Government in its negotiation of the reciprocity agreement. In this the Liberal Government has been confirmed by the House of Commons. Last week, by a majority of 102, an amendment to the address in reply to the Speech from the Throne, practically expressing disapproval of the reciprocity agreement, was rejected. Moreover, the Liberal Government was in existence at the time when King Edward agreed to send his brother as Governor-General to Canada. Indeed, the appointment is due to the suggestion of the Liberals themselves, who foresaw that, while the Duke of Connaught could exercise no political influence as Governor-General, he could and would exercise a notable moral influence in strengthening Canadian loyalty to the Throne and the Empire.

COUNT APPONYI

To many Americans Hungary is a mere geographical expression. When we think of it at all, we are apt to imagine the land a kind of Austrian appendage. But, as a matter of fact, Hungary is no appendage, but Austria's partner in a dual Empire. Moreover, commercially and in some other directions Hungary has become the predominant partner. To reach this status Hungarian statesmen have labored for many years. The names of Kossuth and even of Deák are well known; less well known are the names of the Hungarians of to-day. Among them no one stands for greater purity of motive or for more genuine achievement than does Count Albert Apponyi, who is now visiting America. He belongs to the oldest Hungarian nobility, yet many years ago he relinquished his seat, his by right, in the House of Magnates, the upper chamber of the Hungarian Parliament, in order to sit in the lower house. Now sixty-five years old, he is working as indefatigably as ever in the direction of democracy. Ten years ago Count Apponyi became Speaker of the Hungarian House of Representatives; and his non-partisan spirit gained the confidence of all parties. But a greater distinction was to come to him during his four years' tenure of office as Minister of Education. He secured legislation providing for free primary education in Hungary, and thus stands, alongside Jules Ferry, who did the same thing in France, among the latter-day constructive patriots of Europe. First of all a Nationalist, Count Apponyi is also prominent as an Internationalist. He may be seen at all the yearly meetings of the International Parliamentary Union, whether held at Brussels, Christiania, Paris, London, or St. Louis. His over six-foot height, his long "spade" beard, prominent nose, and deep-set eyes, above all his resonant voice

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and military bearing, instantly distinguish him from the less militant appearance of the other parliamentarians present. Yet none of them espouse the cause of international righteousness and peace with more fervor than does he. Indeed, his primary purpose in this visit to America is to address the New York Civic Forum and the New York Peace Society, though he will doubtless be heard in other places as well. Count Apponyi has already received the unusual distinction of addressing by invitation the United States House of Representatives from the Speaker's rostrum. In introducing Count Apponyi Mr. Cannon referred to his many years of service in the Hungarian House of Representatives and his efforts for education and democracy.

THE STARVING CHINESE

There is famine in China. It covers the northern portions of the Provinces of Kiangsu and Anhwei—an area half again as large as the State of Massachusetts. But in China the people are packed together more closely than in America. Hence the famine stares several million people in the face. They should be quickly aided, for let it not be forgotten that in China *one cent a day* will sustain an individual life! Three years ago there was famine in this self-same region and from the same cause—the failure of crops. The famine was relieved somewhat by the Chinese Government, but chiefly by foreigners, and in particular by Americans. It is a satisfaction to note that in this respect Americans are again taking the lead, and are thereby adding another proof to the fact, as The Outlook has repeatedly maintained, that America is China's best friend. Already the American Red Cross has forwarded ten thousand dollars to the sufferers, and will send them more if funds are forwarded to its office in the War Department. The Red Cross is co-operating with the Seattle Commercial Club of Seattle, Washington (the nearest American port to the Orient), which is also prepared to receive and distribute money and supplies with all possible despatch; the Club is sending a thousand barrels of flour on its own account, and Congress has granted an army transport to the Red Cross for forwarding this and other supplies, such as rice, dried fish and meat, also coarse cotton cloth and cotton wadding out of which to make quilted garments. In Shanghai foreigners representing not only all creeds and nationalities but also all the various interests, both Chinese and foreign, have organized themselves into a committee, and guarantee that all funds sent to the committee's secretary, Mr. S. K. Suzuki, at the Yokohama Specie Bank, Shanghai, will be wisely expended.

CHINA'S DUTY

With these and other humane agencies at work, foreigners are, we think, justified in asking the Chinese officials to change their proverbial slowness both in realizing the gravity of the situation and in moving when they realize it. A special reason exists for believing that this request will not be in vain, for China possesses to-day an expression of the popular will not in existence three years ago—the National Assembly, the beginning of the Chinese Parliament. It will, we are confident, operate as an agency to stir lymphatic officials who hitherto have been little stirred; for, much as the afflicted Chinese need material help, the Chinese Government and the Chinese officials equally need moral stimulus. This should not indicate that the Imperial Government and the officials are not ultimately to be reached by the cry of the suffering. Three years ago the Government showed that it was to be reached, and undertook a number of intelligent measures of relief, including the dredging of the Grand Canal. We hope to see it move with equal intelligence, but we wish we could see it move more quickly. From the rest of China it should have long since rushed forward surplus food supplies to the stricken region. It should have decreed the waiving of provincial and municipal taxation on such foodstuffs; it should have afforded its own security to such foodstuffs; and, finally, it should now be removing as many as possible of the starving men to other provinces where work is to be had. If the Imperial Government will but do one of these four things *now*, foreign aid would, we believe, be greatly stimulated,

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on the principle that men, like God, help those who help themselves.

POSTAL BANKS A SUCCESS

"If the necessary appropriations were available, I would establish postal savings depositories to-morrow in five hundred additional cities and towns in the United States," stated Postmaster-General Hitchcock last week—a statement made in view of the reports thus far received from the first month's operation of the postal savings system. The reports show that the new system has already passed the experimental stage, for in the forty-eight postal depositories—one second class post-office in each State—established at the beginning of the year the total deposits for the month of January were over sixty thousand dollars. Thus the average amount—about twelve hundred and fifty dollars—received at each office is larger than the corresponding average for the British system of postal savings depositories in 1908, the most successful year in the history of that system. Assuming that this average will be maintained during the current year, the aggregate of the first annual deposit in the American postal depositories at forty-eight post-offices should reach nearly three-quarters of a million dollars. But we may also assume, we think, that, based on this success, there will very shortly be a marked extension of the system. As this will doubtless include larger communities than the minor towns where the postal depositories have so far been established, the deposits should be correspondingly greater, especially if the system should include the first-class post-offices found in the larger cities. The patrons of a great number of post-offices are now clamoring for the new banks, and, in consequence, the trustees of the system—the Postmaster-General, the Secretary of the Treasury, and the Attorney-General—have recommended to Congress the appropriation of half a million dollars to be immediately available for the extension of the postal savings system. The Senate Committee on Post-Offices and Post-Roads has now added its own recommendation. We hope that Congress will heed the request. Should there be objection on the ground that appropriations have already reached their proper limit, a half million dollars taken from the River and Harbor Bill, for instance, would, we believe, be better spent for the country's good by handing it to the postal savings banks' trustees.

NEW YORK AFTER ELECTION

The situation in the politics of New York State is both comic and pathetic to those who supported Mr. Roosevelt in his vigorous campaign last autumn to prevent the State from falling into the hands of what he designated as an alliance between corrupt financial interests and corrupt political interests. Mr. Roosevelt's opposition to Mr. Dix as the Democratic nominee for Governor, an opposition in which The Outlook joined, was based on the ground that Mr. Dix, while a man of personal integrity, was the choice of those elements in Tammany and in Wall Street which chiefly stand for the prostitution of politics to personal ends. It was asserted that Mr. Roosevelt, in denouncing the corrupt "interests," used exaggerated language. Mr. Dix's election was hailed as a triumph of common sense over hysterical and visionary idealism. And yet what is the situation to-day? The New York "Evening Post," the New York "World," and the New York "Times," all of which opposed the election of Mr. Stimson and a Republican Legislature, are denouncing the combination of Tammany and the "special interests" in terms which for invective far surpass those of Mr. Roosevelt. The New York "Times" secs in Governor Dix's proposed abolition of the Highways Commission an attempt on the part of Tammany to get control of the road-building of the State for its favorite contractors; the "World" thinks, in double-leaded editorials, that Tammany must be smashed; the "Evening Post" appears to be of the opinion that no decent man can continue to live in New York State if Mr. Sheehan is elected. The Outlook hopes as strongly as it did last autumn that the New York Legislature will elect a Senator who stands for the integrity of popular government, and that, therefore, Mr. Sheehan will be defeated; it hopes that Mr. Dix will resist the terrible press-

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ure which is brought upon any Governor in his position by the corrupt influence within Tammany Hall; but at the same time we ask those who are now clamoring against the debasing work of Mr. Murphy and the "special interests" to consider whether, after all, the position which Mr. Roosevelt took in the last campaign was not the effective and genuine one to have espoused in behalf of good government. It may be interesting to our readers to have a Western view of this curious situation, and we therefore quote from a very clearly put editorial about it in the Louisville "Post:"

The New York "Evening Post" says, after a review of the situation at Albany, that the paramount and pressing duty resting upon every citizen in New York is to destroy the Murphy machine. That was as clear last summer as it is to-day. The Murphy machine, in combination with the Republican machine, had thwarted the purposes of Governor Hughes, had prostituted legislative power to the promotion of graft and privilege, had offended the moral sense of the whole country. At the solicitation of Governor Hughes and President Taft, Mr. Roosevelt made his fight within the Republican party against the Barnes machine, against bossism, against all of the influences that run counter to the principles of free government. But the very entrance of Mr. Roosevelt into this contest aroused the indignation of the New York "Evening Post," the New York "World," the "Sun" and the "Times" and Wall Street, and Tammany Hall took advantage of this opportunity; it named its ticket; it drew its platform, and by the support of the very men that are now calling for its destruction Tammany Hall was able to defeat the reformed Republican party. Never was there greater blindness on the part of so-called political leaders. Never did a press show itself so unworthy of popular confidence as did the press of New York City in the last campaign. Never was the intelligence of journalism so discredited. It was known that Mr. Murphy was Boss, obstinate, resourceful, unyielding. He bossed the Convention. He bossed the ticket. He bossed the campaign. Now that he proposes to boss the Legislature and put a Tammany man in the United States Senate, the New York "Post" cries out against his ascendency, and says it is the paramount duty of every citizen to destroy Murphy and Tammany Hall.

THE SELDEN PATENT

Those of our readers who are the owners of automobiles have known that the manufacturers were divided into two groups—those who were licensed under the Selden patent, and the so-called "independents." The United States Circuit Court of Appeals has recently rendered a decision in regard to this patent which reverses the decree of the lower court and probably ends a long-drawn-out lawsuit, confirming the position of the independents. It has perhaps seemed to a good many that the independents had simply been endeavoring, by the strength of combination and the employment of eminent legal talent, to get rid of paying a justifiable royalty, but the decision of the Court of Appeals indicates that the legal right was with the protestants. The history of this patent is a commentary on some of the weak points of our United States patent laws, under which a patent application can be kept alive for years, and the final issue when granted is not dated from the time of application. George B. Selden is a patent attorney, and he filed an application as far back as 1879, keeping the application alive in the Patent Office, by methods which the attorneys understand and which were perfectly legal, until 1895, when the patent was granted. In 1879 the automobile was practically unknown to the general public, but by the time the patent was issued everybody was familiar with these self-propelling vehicles, and many were surprised to learn that real inventions of others long after 1879, and which they supposed were original with them, were covered by an application made years before and concerning which they could have no possible knowledge. In the lower courts the inventor's contention was sustained, for it seemed that he had strictly followed the requirements of the law, although the judges recognized the hardship to other inventors and manufacturers. In one decision the presiding judge said:

> No litigation closely resembling these cases has been shown to the court, and no instances known to me of an idea being buried in the Patent Office, while the world caught up to and passed it, and then embodied in a patent only useful for tribute.

The application for this patent stated its object to be "the production of a safe, simple, and cheap road locomotive, light in weight, easy to control, possessed of sufficient power to overcome any ordinary inclination." The specific claims were

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divided into six groups, and it is doubtful whether any one of them by itself was an absolutely new idea even in 1879, but the Patent Office allowed a *combination* of the idea in these six groups, and issued a so-called "combination patent," deciding that the combination (*a*) of a carriage with its body, machinery, and steering-wheel, with the (*b*) propelling mechanism, clutch, and gear, and finally (*c*) the engine, made a patent valid. The decision of the final court admits that the Selden patent is valid as a patent, and that perhaps the combination above referred to represented a novelty entitled to the protection of the Patent Office, but that the specific type of engine which Selden evidently had in mind was so different from those now universally used that this element in the combination of the three claims which were the basis of the patent is not present in modern automobiles; and hence that, if one element in the combination patent fails, the whole patent must fail. In other words, if any one were to use the form of engine employed by Selden, he might be an infringer of the patent; not so any one using the present type of power generator. If any of our readers desires to go more fully into the technical points raised in the decision, a discussion of them will be found in the "Scientific American" for January 21, as well as in the publications more specifically devoted to the automobile industry.

A GREAT AMERICAN PAINTER

In the current issue of the "Atlantic Monthly" an accomplished English critic, Mr. Arthur Christopher Benson, expresses his belief that America must patiently wait for the future to develop an art and a literature characteristic of her spirit and soil. His argument is very simple. She must wait because art is a product of tradition and nurture, and America has not yet had time enough to form traditions or to devote to nurture. The Outlook does not undervalue the influence of tradition, but Mr. Benson, like many others of his well-intentioned countrymen, is unaware of the fact that for the past two hundred years we have been forming some traditions. One is that the best art of any people is a product of its own life and soil. In accordance with this truth America is already producing, in architecture, in literature, and in pictorial art and sculpture, works of beauty that are indigenous to its soil. As a confirmation of this assertion we refer to the memorial exhibition of paintings by Winslow Homer which may be seen at the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York City. For Winslow Homer was not only distinctly an American personality and received his inspiration and education in this country, but he painted pictures which are peculiarly American in their atmosphere and character; that is to say, they could not have been painted by any artist of any other nationality on any other soil. The Outlook has already said on another occasion that, in its judgment, a consensus of opinion from American artists and art critics would rank Winslow Homer, taking all his qualities into consideration, as probably the greatest painter that America has so far produced. There have been greater landscapists, greater figure painters, men who were greater in composition and technique, but no one who had a greater conception of the power and majesty of Nature and a greater skill in depicting it. The memorial exhibition at the Metropolitan Museum, although small, admirably displays this quality, as, for example, in the "Banks Fishermen," "The Coming Storm," and "Eight Bells." This phase of Homer's genius is perhaps better disclosed in three pictures presented to the Metropolitan Museum by Mr. George A. Hearn, which, however, are not in the memorial group, but are found in another part of the building, namely, "Cannon Rock," "The Searchlight," and "The Northeaster." Even in his remarkable water-colors of Bermuda and Nassau the thing that strikes the observer most forcibly is not the wonderful color and the luxuriant growth of the tropics, but the eternal vitality which is behind all natural phenomena. Winslow Homer did not depict Nature in her graceful and charming moods. To do that is the work of the lyrical and not the epic artist. But there are in his work occasional disclosures of his love for Nature in her more intimate relationships. Where can one find a more delightful por-

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trayal of the summer breeze and the summer blossom, together with human enjoyment of it all, than in the water-color entitled "The Berry-Pickers"? No art can claim commendation merely because it is national. But when it is intrinsically noble and beautiful and is also intrinsically national, it is quite justifiable for the nation which produces it to take some pride in the fact. It should be added that the Metropolitan Museum deserves much praise for arranging this and similar exhibitions for the benefit of the general public.

DR. JOWETT COMING TO NEW YORK

Another distinguished English preacher is coming to New York; this time to the pulpit of the Fifth Avenue Presbyterian Church, which has long been vacant. Dr. J. H. Jowett, preacher of the Carrs Lane Congregational Church, Birmingham, England, has accepted a call from the church and ended a three years' persistent endeavor on the part of the church to secure his services. When it was known that he had received an invitation from the New York congregation, great efforts were made to keep him in England; the city magistrates of Birmingham appealed to him to remain in that city, and it is reported that bishops of the Church of England expressed a very strong desire that he should continue his work in that country. He is said to be one of the most effective preachers in the English pulpit, the special characteristic of his sermons being their impassioned eloquence. Two years ago Dr. Jowett visited this country, preached in the church to which he has now been called, and made a deep impression upon the congregation. In fact, wherever he spoke during his American visit he proved an eminently acceptable preacher. Last year he was elected President of the Free Church Council, one of the most important positions open to a Nonconformist minister in England. He was born in Yorkshire, and educated at the University of Edinburgh and at Mansfield College, Oxford, a Congregational institution of which Dr. Fairbairn is the eminent President. He has had only two pastorates. In a letter written to the congregation to which he will minister in the future Dr. Jowett says that he declined the first call of the church as the result of the very strong claims to duty in England which were pressed upon him; that he declined a second call in June last; that the renewal of the call for the third time has given him the feeling that his duty in the future lies in this country. He adds that he is sure he will not need the large salary offered him, and that when he meets the officers of the Fifth Avenue Presbyterian Church he intends to ask their judgment as to the equivalent of his present salary as his stipend for the future, thus silencing at once those critics, of whom there are always many, who have not been slow to suggest that he was yielding to the temptation of a larger salary. In justice to Dr. Jowett, the officers of the Fifth Avenue Presbyterian Church will no doubt explain to him the difference in the cost of living between Birmingham and New York.

THE CHILD WELFARE EXHIBIT

The Child Welfare Exhibit, which has just been concluded in New York City, is an extraordinary manifestation of the constant work of practical altruism which is going on in this community. The Exhibit covered a field which is almost as unbounded as life itself, because the welfare of the child touches every phase of life. Domestic science, pictorial art, music, the drama, clothing, food, education, the care of delinquents, and the protection of waifs and strays from criminal association are some of the departments of this Exhibit which come at random to the mind of one who has visited it. The Outlook has already given considerable space to a report of this remarkable study of child life, and will in the future have still more to say about it. At this time we wish to call attention to one particular phase of altruistic work for children which has been brought to the attention of the public at the Exhibit, namely, the care by municipal and private agencies of delinquents and deficient children. An article on another page of this issue by Mr. Coulter, of the New York Children's Court, tells an intensely interesting human story of the work of the city in this regard. Last week, at one of the many conferences at

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the Welfare Exhibit, Judge Franklin C. Hoyt, who has done fine work sitting upon the bench of the Children's Court, read a paper in which he outlined the spirit and methods that should characterize a well-conducted Children's Court. In our judgment, the striking portion of Judge Hoyt's address was that in which he differentiated idealism and sentiment from sentimentalism:

I have also referred to the tendency of sentimentalism to weaken the authority of the Court. By this I mean the efforts, on the part of some theorists, towards eliminating all dignity and show of discipline from the Court procedure, and reducing to a minimum the power of the judge (or, as they would prefer calling him, perhaps, the children's disciplinarian). I do not mean the enlightened policy of seeking to eliminate as far as possible the idea of a criminal court, and of doing all to bring the child in closer contact with the judge himself. With these latter tendencies I am in the fullest accord. The Children's Court must not be regarded as a criminal one. I venture to say that here in New York over one-half of the serious cases with which we have to deal are those of the neglected, not delinquent, child, and even a case of delinquency must not be treated as a criminal prosecution. The Court, in a large measure, properly belongs among those which have ever been the most efficient in English jurisprudence—the Courts of Equity. But call it what you will, a quasi-criminal court, a court of equity, or a court of chancery, it should ever remain a solemn tribunal—a tribunal, it is true, of infinite tenderness and patience, but nevertheless an institution of great dignity, of great power, and of great capacity for good. It should rank here, as it does in many other places, second to none as a court of original jurisdiction. I look forward to the time when, instead of having its authority lessened, it shall be endowed in New York with the larger power it possesses in other States to try, not only the children's cases themselves, but all cases involving children. There is no need, either, to lay down any rules restricting the judge in his method of dealing with his cases; rather should he be permitted to suit his procedure to the special need of each individual case. I speak, of course, not of legal procedure, but of the court's surroundings and the judge's method of conducting his hearings. At times, in the simplest manner possible, he must act as the guide, counselor, and friend of the erring child that may be brought before him; at others he must impress an offender with the authority of the law. At times he must act as a sympathetic adviser to an unfortunate parent, at others he must deal severely and sternly with a neglectful one. Surely the judge can be trusted to suit his procedure and his methods according to the facts of each case, for in no other way, so far as I can see, can we hope to achieve the best results.

What Judge Hoyt here says contains doctrine which is worth considering, not only by courts and court officers, but by fathers and mothers in every family—for every family in which there are children is a sort of court of education, correction, discipline, and encouragement, and the father and mother are the judges.

THE NEEDS OF JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY

The trustees of Johns Hopkins University have recently issued an appeal for a special "endowment and extension fund" of $2,000,000. The citizens of Baltimore—who had already contributed to the support of the University more than $3,500,000—have given a fresh evidence of their civic pride by subscribing almost half the entire amount. This generous response has secured a further sum of $250,000 which had been conditionally offered by the General Education Board; and the trustees now propose to ask for the remainder of the fund from the friends of higher education in other cities. As a pioneer in post-graduate work and in systematic research, Johns Hopkins has always occupied a unique position among the American universities; and its record of the past thirty-five years is the best justification of a wider appeal for assistance in the extension of its work. It has done much for American scholarship and education, and it is entitled to the support of the whole country. The purpose of this new fund is partly to transfer the University to its new site at "Homewood," and partly to provide for the extension of its activity into several new departments of study. These new departments are to be: A School of Applied Science, in which advanced students will be taught methods of scientific investigation applicable to existing industrial pursuits; a School of Jurisprudence, not merely vocational or professional in character, but a place for the scientific study of laws and their effect upon communities; and a Department of Preventive Medicine, in connection with the Johns Hopkins Medical School, which will apply scientific methods to the study of problems concerning the public health.

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A NOTEWORTHY PROJECT IN HIGHER EDUCATION

A real democracy must see that the chance for an elementary education is open to every man and woman. This is the first essential. But it is also essential that there should be the amplest opportunity for every kind of higher education. The education of the mass, while the most important problem in democratic education, is in no way or shape by and of itself sufficient. Democracy comes short of what it should be just to the extent that it fails to provide for the exceptional individual the highest kind of exceptional training; for democracy as a permanent world force must mean not only the raising of the general level but also the raising of the standards of excellence to which only exceptional individuals can attain. The table-land must be raised, but the high peaks must not be leveled down; on the contrary, they too must be raised. Highly important though it is that the masons and bricklayers should be excellent, it is nevertheless a grave mistake to suppose that any excellence in the bricklayers will enable us to dispense with architects.

In this country we have met better than in other countries the demand for general education, and there is now on foot a widespread and most useful and important agitation to better this type of general education by making it more practical, by making it more a training of the average boy and girl for what that average boy or girl must do in after life. The higher technical schools carry out the same purpose on a more advanced scale. Law schools, medical schools, agricultural institutes, engineering schools, and all similar schools for technical training are being improved and are increasing in numbers. The average State university takes its students as soon as they leave the high schools and gives them a technical training as a preparation for some professional or commercial career, and it does this on so large a scale and so successfully that the small, privately endowed college of the old type cannot in this field compete successfully with its great State-aided rival. The large private universities, especially in the East, which have no State support, have been forced to meet this rivalry, and have been enabled to do so only by the extraordinary gifts which they have received from friends and alumni. Through these endowments new technical schools and professional and post-graduate courses have been established in profusion, and it is this fact that enables Yale, Harvard, Princeton, Columbia, and certain other similar private institutions to perform the work which the State universities also perform, by taking students from high schools and graduating them equipped to pursue a technical occupation.

It is to meet the state of affairs thus created that Messrs. E. Parmalee Prentice, Ellsworth G. Lancaster, and William G. Thayer, of the class of 1885 at Amherst, have as a committee prepared a plan which they have submitted to the trustees of that college. Their report is one of the most noteworthy of recent educational documents. In their opinion, Amherst at present has no place such as that which it filled fifty or even twenty-five years ago, when education was not of so technical a character, and when a college man was more representative of individual training and general culture than at present. As things are now, the high school fits for the university, and the university for the selected calling. Amherst, on the other hand, demands a preparation not within the tendencies of the high school, and gives a course of training which does not specially fit a man for any particular calling. Moreover, Amherst has not the means which will enable it much longer to compete on their own terms against the State universities and huge privately endowed universities. Either Amherst must be content to occupy an entirely secondary position in the educational field, or else it ought to occupy a no less entirely separate and distinctive portion of that field.

The three men who have signed the address then proceed to give the reasons why they believe that there is a distinctive field of the highest value which Amherst both can and ought to occupy. With equal boldness and wisdom, they advocate Amherst's frankly taking the position that it does not intend to have anything to do with that type of education—necessarily, much the most popular type—the appraisal of which is purely commercial, the

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value of the training being measured by the income it returns. They insist that, in addition to this more ordinary and usually more necessary form of training, there is another which should be undergone simply for the sake of learning and for the benefit of the State; the kind of training which will help in giving to the State the incalculable benefits of a literature of the first rank and statesmanship of the first rank. For this purpose they believe that Amherst, so far from diminishing the attention given to classical training, should greatly increase it, modifying it from time to time, of course, to meet the demands of modern scholarship; and that for this purpose Amherst's aim should be to get the best teachers of the country in its own chosen field of work, and the ablest and most serious of the young men who desire to profit by such a course of teaching. They propose that Amherst shall frankly abandon the purely scientific part of collegiate work and stand for a liberal classical education, an education along the old lines, but better than could be obtained by the old methods; an education which will make Amherst of high value to the public by training statesmen and leaders of public thought in civics, in the history of government, in the development and significance of institutions, in the meaning of civilization. This education is, in Amherst, to be the substitute for the effort personally to equip a man for a trade.

The committee is careful to explain that it does not advocate the elimination of the sciences nor advocate the unchanged classical course of fifty years ago. A knowledge of science is part of a liberal education; but the science is to be taught so as to turn out, not an engineer, a chemist, an electrician, a biologist, but a man of broad general scientific as well as of broad general classical training. The committee also expressly disclaims any kind of criticism upon what is done by the average big university of to-day, and especially by the average State university. On the contrary, it explicitly recognizes the fact that technical education and trade education are essential to the work of the world, and that the vast development of the schools and universities in technical lines has been a public and urgent necessity. But it insists, and quite rightly, that this does not meet all the demands of the world, and that different institutions can with profit to the public turn their attention in different directions. Its theory is that Amherst should stand for a cultural education, for one which will give breadth of view, which will fit a man not so much to be a leader in any one special calling as to be a leader of public thought; that the graduate of Amherst shall not be specially fitted for one vocation, but that his training shall have been such as to stand outside the straight line to pecuniary reward. There is room in our country for institutions of every kind, and the need for highly efficient technical schools does not imply that there is any less need than formerly for the highest and best type of classical education.

Accordingly the committee states that, in its judgment, Amherst should now completely cease the effort to compete in technical education with other institutions, and devote itself to the classical field of education—to what were once called the "humanities"—and that in this field it should endeavor to take a position as a leader. To accomplish this end, it advocates, first, that the faculty should be composed of the best teachers in the country for their chosen courses, and, second, that the body of students and the purpose and life of the college should be directed toward excellence in scholarship. The most fundamentally important part of the proposition is the proposal to stop all effort to increase the material equipment of the College, and, instead, to endeavor to increase the infinitely more important intellectual equipment by very largely raising the salaries of the instructors. Not only is the committee absolutely right in this proposition as regards Amherst, but what it says applies in only a less degree just as much to other institutions of learning. Altogether too much money has been put into bricks and mortar in our colleges compared to the amount that has been put into the salaries of the men who are to give the instruction. A really good university should have among its professors not only good teachers, but men of creative and productive scholarship. There are many such now. But

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there ought to be many more. It is not necessary that teaching be made a conspicuously lucrative profession, but it is necessary that the compensation be not conspicuously low. A young man of ability with high ideals ought not to make money-making his first preoccupation. But he certainly and emphatically ought to insist upon an adequate salary, one sufficient to support his family and to enable him to associate with his equals on equal terms. A successful professor in a prominent college should occupy a position that will compare well in dignity with the position achieved by success in other occupations. The very low salaries of our college instructors and professors represent a fundamental National evil. There should be a fundamental change, and, as the committee says, in order to bring about this fundamental change what is needed is not a slight increase but a radically new standard of compensation. If Amherst would take the lead and in striking fashion inaugurate this new standard, that mere fact would at once give the College a commanding position of a unique kind.

In conclusion, the committee urges, to carry out its policy:

(1) That the instruction given at Amherst College be a modified classical course.

(2) That the degree of Bachelor of Science be abolished.

(3) That the College adopt the deliberate policy of devoting all its means to the indefinite increase of teachers' salaries.

(4) That the number of students attending the College be limited.

(5) That entrance be permitted only by competitive examination.

I am by no means sure that this fifth provision is wise; and, in my judgment, the "classical course" should include also a wide sweep of general history and literature. But the propositions, taken together, represent a proposal which, though radical and startling in its novelty and in its utter divergence from the ordinary type of educational proposal, nevertheless, if put into effect, will mean far-reaching benefit to our National life. If Amherst College is willing and able substantially to adopt the suggestion of the committee, a great good will have been accomplished; and in any event the committee is to be congratulated for having so clearly set forth the principle which it is more essential for America than for any other nation effectually to realize.

THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

THE PROGRESSIVE LEAGUE PLATFORM

The National Progressive Republican League, as reported in The Outlook for February 4, indorses five proposed reforms. They are not properly party measures, and are both supported and opposed alike by Republicans and Democrats. They are these:

Direct primaries.

Popular election of delegates to the National Convention.

Election of United States Senators by the people.

The referendum, initiative, and recall.

An effective corrupt practices act.

To these we add a sixth—the short ballot.

Under the convention system the party leaders select the candidates; the people choose between the candidates presented to them. Under the direct primary the voters in the respective parties select the candidates. In the latter case the electors choose between the candidates selected by the leaders, in the other case between the candidates selected by the parties. The direct primary is democracy carried into party organization.

The short ballot enables the people to know the man they are voting for and to hold him responsible for the results of the election. We have the short ballot in the Federal election. We elect a President, and he appoints the heads of Departments. In most of the States we have a long ballot, and elect the heads of Departments—in New York State a Secretary of State, a Comptroller, a State Treasurer, a State Engineer, and an Attorney-General. The voter hardly knows their duties; he does not know at all their capabilities. He votes the party ticket; that is, he votes for the men who have been selected for him by the party leaders. This is not democracy; it is oligarchy. It is not rule by the many; under guise of rule by the many, it is rule by the few.

By a different process, but with a simi-

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lar result, the United States Senator is selected for the people, not by the people. This is strikingly illustrated by the play going on at Albany to-day. It is the duty of the Legislature to elect a United States Senator. Governor Dix, who was elected by the people of the State, and who represents officially the Democratic party which elected him, thinks he has no right to interfere, and will exert no influence. Mr. Murphy, who holds no office and has no constituency, is troubled by no such scruples, but attends the Legislature as punctually as if he were a member of it. If Mr. Sheehan is elected, it will be because Mr. Murphy selected him—unless the report of the New York "Times" Albany correspondent is correct—and the New York "Times" was, in the last election, a Democratic organ. Its correspondent reports that Mr. Murphy would withdraw Mr. Sheehan and substitute another candidate, but that certain Wall Street interests which he serves refuse their permission. So we have in this State this spectacle: The people elect a Legislature to elect a Senator, and an unknown financial boss selects the Senator whom the political boss requires the Legislature to select. The remedy is a direct primary for the nomination of Senators, and a popular election to choose between the nominees.

Into the details of a corrupt practices act we do not enter. It ought to include prohibition of corporation contributions, official accounting for all receipts and expenditures by or on behalf of the candidate and of the campaign committee, disfranchisement of any man convicted of offering bribes, permanent disqualification for office of any man proved to have been elected or appointed to office as a result of bribery of which he had knowledge.

These four measures to protect the people from the cunning devices of astute politicians combined to defeat the popular will and to promote the special interests ought to have the support of the honest men of all parties. And if the honest and earnest defenders of popular government against the oligarchy doubt the wisdom of these measures or any of them, they should at least recognize the evil and propose some other and better remedy.

The Outlook cannot declare itself with equal explicitness on the referendum, the initiative, and the recall. They are still in the experimental stage. The results in Switzerland, where they have had a considerable trial, and in Oregon, where the referendum and the initiative have apparently worked well in a rural community, are not so conclusive as to prepare us to urge their universal and unqualified acceptance. The same thing may be said as to the successful application of the recall in Los Angeles. It is true, however, that they are not doctrinaire proposals; they have produced some good results where tried, and deserve serious consideration.

All three may be roughly described as devices to make the machinery of popular government more immediately responsive to the popular will. The effect of all three is to remove some of the brakes and hindrances which our fathers thought necessary to prevent the hasty errors which might be produced by popular prejudice and popular passion. The political history of America indicates that democracy is less liable to sudden gusts of passion and prejudice than our fathers anticipated.

Practically all Americans are agreed that the referendum can be properly and successfully employed in certain cases. It is almost universally used in the case of Constitutional amendments in the States, and is extensively used in the adoption of municipal charters and bond issues. Amendments to the Federal Constitution are not referred to the people; but there is no reason why they should not be so referred; why, for example, the *people* of the States instead of the *Legislatures* of the States should not vote directly on such a measure as the proposed Income Tax Amendment. The referendum may also be gradually extended to other matters of public importance and public interest with probable advantage, provided great pains are taken to secure an adequate presentation of the issue to the people and an adequate public discussion of it. The existence of such provision has done much to make the referendum in Oregon a success; the absence of such provision has made the vote in New York State on Constitutional amendments very light and frequently not very intelligent. In France the question whether the people would have an imperial form

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of government and Louis Napoleon for Emperor was referred to them; but no alternative was presented, and the people chose imperialism rather than anarchy—an illustration of the fact that the value of a referendum depends largely on the manner in which the issue referred to the people is framed.

The initiative is a process by which laws are proposed, on the petition of a certain specified proportion of the voters, for action either by the Legislature or by the direct vote of the people through a referendum. What we have said concerning the referendum applies equally to the initiative. The numerously signed petition for the pardon of Charles W. Morse, the convicted banker, illustrates the fact that it is easy to get many signatures to a petition if a few men are in earnest to get them. The numerously signed petition for the abolition of the canteen illustrates the fact that it is easy to get a superficial sentiment, not made deliberate by any broad discussion or any public sense of responsibility, to overrule the expert judgment of those who know conditions. We believe that a simple provision enabling a minority of a House, say a fourth of its members, to compel any committee to report to the House any measure committed to it, would be more practically effective than the initiative in securing public consideration and final adoption of desirable legislation now shelved by secret influences. But the two reforms are not inconsistent. The initiative, wherever adopted, should be accompanied by some adequate provision for the expert drafting of proposed measures.

The recall enables the people by a special election, ordered on the petition of a specified proportion of the voters, to remove from office an elective officer before his term expires. The arguments for the recall are two: First, the people may elect for a longer term, and so avoid frequent elections. Thus they may, as in Boston, elect a mayor for four years and provide that he *can* be recalled after two years, instead of electing him for two years and requiring him to go before the people for a re-election at the end of that time. Second, the people, if they have made a mistake in electing an officer and are convinced of their mistake by his course in office, can correct it by recalling him. The recall should, in our judgment, be confined to administrative officers, and to municipal, town, and village communities. It should not be extended to legislative or judicial officers nor to the chief executive of the State until it has been fairly tried in the municipalities; and it should be exercised only for serious malfeasance or neglect in office, not for mere difference of opinion.

To sum up: The Outlook regards the referendum, the initiative, and the recall as promising experiments, but as yet only experiments, which are to be measured by their results. The direct primary, the popular election of United States Senators, an effective corrupt practices act, and the short ballot we regard as already demonstrated. The necessity of the direct primary and the popular election of United States Senators has been demonstrated by the failure of the present method to give the results the Nation needs. The value of an effective corrupt practices act has been demonstrated by the results of such an act in England; the value of the short ballot by the results of the short ballot in our Federal elections.

GREELEY, SUMNER, AND MORTON

The centenaries of the birth of both Horace Greeley and Charles Sumner have recently been celebrated. It is a good thing for us in America, who particularly need a historical perspective, to keep alive the memory of the men who rendered real service to the Nation in the past. Both Horace Greeley and Charles Sumner were among these men.

Horace Greeley was by far the most influential newspaper editor this country ever possessed. In the fundamentals his example is one which present-day editors can well afford to imitate so far as their powers permit. No other paper, before or since, has occupied the position which the "Tribune" held during so much of the period when Horace Greeley was its editor. Means of communication then were nothing like what they are now, and yet the weekly "Tribune" was read

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from Maine to Iowa, and exerted a really extraordinary influence upon the thought of the country. It never professed to be, and indeed would not have cared to be, a paper merely for the cultivated classes. But its homely shrewdness and burly good sense and patriotism made it a fit exponent of the ideals of those Americans who made up the really essential part of our population and who finally realized their highest ideal in the person of Abraham Lincoln. The "Tribune" rendered its greatest service in the years immediately preceding the Civil War. Horace Greeley stood high among the men who trained the best people of the North to realize that slavery was a National curse. He was one of the most potent influences in strengthening the minds and hearts of that generation which needed all its strength in order that it might stand the strain of the Civil War.

Before the struggle actually began Greeley loomed large as one of the leaders in the work of preparation. After the struggle had begun, while the part that he still played was important and useful, it was less important and less useful than that which he had formerly played, or than that which others were then playing. He had in him a vein of the erratic which rendered it impossible for him to adhere to one course with the unfaltering steadfastness which marked Lincoln. Moreover, he, like Sumner (although to a much less degree than the abolitionists who followed Garrison and Phillips), suffered from the defects which marred so much of the otherwise very lofty work done by the men who first taught our countrymen keenly to realize the meaning of liberty. In their zeal for all the virtues, the special apostles of liberty often preached other doctrines utterly incompatible with it. Greeley and Sumner and their fellows, of course, were never guilty of the absurdities into which Phillips and Garrison fell—such an absurdity, for instance, as, in the name of hostility to slavery, proposing to break up the Union and thereby absolutely to destroy the power to deal with slavery; but both Greeley and Sumner had, incongruously enough, praised peace, not as a means, but as an end, at the very time that they insisted upon a course of conduct which probably meant war and which could be justified only by willingness to resort to arms if the provocation became sufficient. This fundamental incongruity in their principles was lastingly mischievous in its effects. Unquestionably, Greeley's occasional wavering in his support of Lincoln and the policies which triumphed in the spring of 1865 was largely due to his never having effectively realized the fact that stern willingness to appeal to arms and unfaltering resolution in carrying a contest to a successful conclusion may at any time in a nation's history become the one vital and all-important trait in that nation's character.

Sumner's activity covered about the same period as Greeley's. Like Greeley, he showed himself to be a great National worthy. He was one of those men to whom this Nation owes much. Again like Greeley, his period of greatest usefulness was in the dozen years preceding the outbreak of the war—not either during the war itself or during the immediately succeeding period.

Sumner's audience was different from Greeley's. Greeley was as much a man of the plain people as Lincoln himself, and he was known quite as well in the West as in New York, and almost as well in rural New England. Sumner's popular audience was much smaller, but the effect of his words and actions among the highest thinkers of New England and their fellows elsewhere was very marked. His voice rang like a trumpet in the ears of our people as he bade them realize their sin, and his ardent championship of the great, immutable principles of righteousness and liberty and justice sent a thrill through the hearts of the young men and caused a stir in the blood of even the most callous worshipers of Mammon. There is in his life ample opportunity for criticism. His vituperation of his political opponents was not only unseemly, but was of such a character as to render it discreditable to him to use such language unless he was prepared to defend himself. Nor was his course during and after the war on a level with his course in the years preceding. Nevertheless, as with Greeley, the fact remains that the Nation is his debtor, that he rendered a great service

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to all the people, and left behind him a fine record of disinterested devotion to high causes.

The National recognition which Greeley and Sumner have won for themselves should be kept alive; but we should remember that it was due in part to the fact that, rendering their service by tongue and pen, they were constantly before the public. Many, too, of their contemporaries, men like Seward, Stanton, and Chase, were where all men could see them, and were only less conspicuous than the great commanders in the field. The Nation should not forget such men as these; but it should remember others who rendered a service no less great but less conspicuous. Among those none deserves higher recognition than the great war Governor of Indiana, Oliver P. Morton. For the most part the biographers and historians of the period of struggle which culminated in the Civil War came from the Northeast. As a consequence of that fact a man who, like Morton, did his work in civilian capacity west of the Alleghanies was less likely to receive his share of attention and praise. Even among war Governors the one who figures most largely in writings about the war is Andrew, of Massachusetts. No one should undervalue the great services of Andrew; but Massachusetts was without reservation loyal to the Union, while Indiana was nearly evenly divided. The task that fell to the Governor of Massachusetts was not to be compared in difficulty and importance with that which fell upon the Governor of Indiana.

Indiana was the most doubtful State in the North, the State in which the Confederate sympathizers formed themselves into secret organizations, such as the Knights of the Golden Circle, and were bent upon accomplishing their purpose by violence. A vivid picture of just what the Southern Indiana secessionists really were is given in Phœbe Brown's "Knights in Fustian." There was nothing, from armed revolution to assassination, which they did not seriously threaten. They were frankly disloyal to the Union and frank in their advocacy of the success of the Confederacy. Indiana's geographical position was such that secessionist control of the State would have split the Union, from the Canadian border to the edge of the Confederacy, nearly in two.

In 1862, in the time of general depression and reaction, the Democrats, under the most extreme and violent secession leadership, carried Indiana and controlled both houses of the Legislature. Governor Morton had charge of the armed forces of the State. The Legislature resolved to take from him this power and vest it in itself, with the avowed purpose of recalling the Indiana troops from the front. As it could not pass such a measure over Morton's veto, the Legislature appended it as a rider to the appropriation bill, announcing that no money to run the government would be appropriated unless the Governor yielded in the matter of the troops. To yield would have been very possibly fatal to the Union cause. Morton refused to yield. Taking advantage of the provisions of the Indiana law, he allowed the legislative session to lapse and declined to call the Legislature together. He had not a penny with which to run the State, but he never flinched, never faltered for one moment. He came on to Washington and got some money from Stanton, and in New York, by his personal pledge, he secured the remaining funds necessary from the great patriotic banking house of the Laniers. Then for two years, with iron will and iron hand, he ran the government on the money which he had thus borrowed on his own responsibility, met all the demands made by the National authorities for troops, kept his troops thoroughly equipped and supplied at the front, put down every attempt at insurrection at home, and, by the mere force of his tremendous personality, thus kept Indiana in the Union and very possibly saved the Union from complete disaster. With heart and nerves of steel, he laughed at the incessant plots to assassinate him, met attempted violence by the instant, unsparing, and effective use of force, and opposed to the political cunning and desperate demagogy of his enemies his own masterly proficiency in the field of practical politics. For two years he thus held up the hands of Lincoln and of the great generals in the field, utterly heedless of the terrible personal menace which defeat in the struggle held for him. Then, after these years of black strain, victory

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came, and in Indiana, as elsewhere, the efforts of the Union and of liberty triumphed.

Like Greeley and Sumner, after the war Morton did not stay on the level to which he had risen. Unlike Greeley and Sumner, he had no share of prominence in public life before the war. But his services during the war itself were of incalculable value. Sumner and Greeley have received their reward in fame, and they deserved the high praise that they have received for the way in which they roused the conscience of our people and called them to do their duty in the struggle for the right; but Morton, comparatively neglected as a National figure, stands as typical of the men to whose iron strength we owe it that in the struggle itself the right won.

The position of Lincoln is solitary. That of no other man approaches it. Aside, however, from him and from the great commanders in the field, to no leader in the Civil War does this country owe more than to Morton of Indiana.

SENATORIAL ELECTIONS

The legislative deadlock which is obstructing the election of a United States Senator from New York, the debates in the Senate regarding the notorious Lorimer case, and the joint resolution which has been introduced into Congress with a view to establishing popular election of Senators, have combined to direct public attention in an unusual and acute degree toward the United States Senate, its members, and the question of how they shall be chosen.

First, the case of Mr. Sheehan, of New York State, is of National interest, because it is clarifying public opinion with regard to one fundamentally important point. Does a United States Senator represent his State, his party, or a faction of his party? The makers of the Constitution clearly believed that a Senator should represent his State. It was for that reason that they determined that he should be chosen by the vote of the Legislature representing the whole State. A majority of the Legislature elects a Senator; not a majority of a faction or of a legislative caucus. The supporters of Mr. Sheehan are crying out that representative government is being undermined in New York State because a minority of the Democratic members of the Legislature are valiantly opposing Mr. Sheehan's election. These supporters say that the well-established principle of American government is that the majority shall rule. This is quite true, but in the case of the election of a Senator it means a majority of the Legislature, and Mr. Sheehan and his supporters are the real minority obstructionists. In party government, of course, a United States Senator will, on fundamental political principles, represent, or ought to represent, the beliefs and doctrines of the majority of individual voters who have elected the Legislature—that is to say, his party. But in the largest and best sense he is a representative of the whole State, and it is clear that in New York the great majority of the whole State is unalterably opposed to Mr. Sheehan. Like the late Senator Hill, whose disciple Mr. Sheehan claims to be, he asserts, in season and out of season, that he is "a Democrat." His course in obstructing the present election shows conclusively that he is not truly a democrat, but an oligarchist.

Second, The Outlook favors the election of Senators by popular vote, and it is in sympathy with the attempt which has been made to place the Congress of the United States on record as favoring popular Senatorial elections. But The Outlook does not favor that portion of the proposed amendment to the Constitution, introduced into Congress in behalf of popular Senatorial elections, which takes away from the Nation and gives to the States the power of providing for the circumstances under which those elections shall take place. It is absolutely necessary that the Congress of the United States in both branches shall have full control over its own members. The Constitution provides that the elections of United States Senators and Representatives shall be regulated by the State Legislatures, "but the Congress may at any time by law make or alter such regulations." The amendment introduced in behalf of popular Senatorial elections takes away the power of Congress to supervise such elections, and vests the entire power in the individual States. Perhaps this was done

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to obtain the vote of the ultra "States' rights" Senators and Representatives. If so, it was both an essential and a tactical error. If the joint resolution is adopted as it stands, each State can provide for the time and manner of electing a Senator according to its own desires. All uniformity of time, manner, and certification will disappear, which would tend of itself to cause great confusion. It might, and perhaps would, in certain States result in unjust disfranchisement laws. To take the supervising power from the United States and pass it absolutely over to the individual States in Senatorial elections would, in our judgment, be a great disaster. We think it would be far better for the country to postpone action on popular Senatorial elections, much as we advocate them, than to secure them by a method which is destructive of National authority in those elections.

Third, more important than the question of the method of electing Senators, which is illustrated in Mr. Sheehan's case and the introduction of the above-mentioned resolution in Congress, is the vital question of honesty in applying that method. For this reason The Outlook regards the attitude of the Senate in the Lorimer case, and therefore the attitude of individual Senators in the Lorimer case, as of far greater consequence than the attitude they take on the question of electing the Senators. An election tainted as the election of Senator Lorimer was tainted, whether by a Legislature or by a popular vote, creates a condition which must be vigorously dealt with, and the spirit and action of a public man in dealing with it affords the best possible test of worth as a public servant. Whether the corruption is in the people at large, as was so lamentably shown to be the case in connection with one of the Ohio counties at the recent election, or whether it is shown in the Legislature, as in the Lorimer case, is of little consequence. The prime thing is in each case to punish the culprit, and at least to deprive the beneficiary of the corruption of all benefit from that corruption. Corruption of the people themselves, as in the Ohio county in question, is even more melancholy than corruption of the people's representatives; but it must be remembered that the guilt is greater in the representative, because to his personal wrong-doing is added betrayal of trust given him by others. Senators Frazier, Beveridge, Crawford, Brown, and Root, and those who have stood with them in their demand that Senator Lorimer be deprived of his seat, have rendered one of the greatest public services which can be rendered. How these men differ among themselves on the question of the method of electing United States Senators is of small importance compared to the importance of their agreement on the fundamental proposition that Senatorial elections shall be untainted by fraud.

AN IMPORTANT LITERARY BIOGRAPHY

The two bulky volumes in which the life of Edmund Clarence Stedman [1] is told, with the help of Dr. Gould, by his granddaughter, who was during his closing years his affectionate and helpful secretary, is in effect an autobiography. If the text had been confined to Mr. Stedman's letters, the story would have been fairly complete; supplemented by a great mass of correspondence with his friends, by a minute record of his books, and by the filling in of the lacunæ left by his letters, the biography becomes an important contribution to the history of American literature during the last half-century.

Mr. Stedman was a conscientious and brilliant critic and a poet of feeling and vigorous thought and phrase; he was also a representative man of letters. Among his contemporaries and friends there were more original and charming writers than he, but not even Lowell surpassed him in knowledge of his art and in skill in stating its principles and illustrating their application from the poetry of the English-speaking peoples. His "Victorian Poets," "Poets of America," and Johns Hopkins lectures on "The Nature and Elements of Poetry" form a body of literary exposition more complete, in their field, than any other in the two literatures with which they deal. When one remembers the conditions under which they were prepared, the pluck, patience, and gallantry

[1] Life and Letters of Edmund Clarence Stedman. By Laura Stedman and George M. Gould, M.D. Illustrated. Moffat, Yard & Co., New York.

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of a high-spirited nature subjecting itself to exacting tasks, stealing from rest hours and years which later revenged themselves, they form an inspiring chapter in American biography.

Literature was always Mr. Stedman's first interest, but his writing was, in a sense, the by-product of his active life:

> It is simply what I've been able to do, under the most baffling circumstances—the result of odd hours, filched from sleep or business, in fifteen years of struggling, ill health, anxiety and—but no matter! Instead of having been written with consecutive industry, by a man who is at ease, it is the scattered lyrics of a man who has led, during this time, the most unliterary life of all American authors.

To those who knew him vitality was his most obvious quality; it was the source of his courage under great and sore trials, of his vivacity of speech and manner, of his resolute persistence in his task. His youth was overflowing with the spirit of gay mischief; it brought his college career to a premature close; and to the very end he was mentally and physically alive in every fiber. It was in Northampton in 1851, while he was in banishment from college, that he finally fell from academic grace by appearing in a series of "Dramatic Rehearsals" as "Agnes Willoughby," the sister of the "well-known tragedian, Alfred Willoughby," announced as having just returned from a brilliant "professional tour in Europe." They were welcomed by a small but enthusiastic audience, and announced a second performance at a reduced price; it somehow became known that the actors were two talented boys bent on amusing themselves, and the second performance never came off. This bit of fun ended Stedman's career at Yale; but Dr. Woolsey wrote him that it would "not be considered contrary to the comity of colleges that any other institution should receive you." The banished sophomore said in later years that this was the first time he had ever seen the word "comity," and that it "left a lasting impress on his memory." Twenty years later, by way of answer to a manly letter of regret for this amusing escapade, Yale restored Stedman to his class with the degree of B.A., and threw in an M.A. for good measure. The reinstated prodigal said, "It has taken me twenty-two years to get through college."

In the same year, by way of bringing forth fruit meet for repentance, he published in the "Atlantic" his delightful essay on "Tennyson and Theocritus," in which knowledge and literary feeling are blended with a skill rarely found among scholars. His interest in the Greek idyllists would have made him a chosen translator if time had permitted him to carry out a cherished hope. He made a study of the text of Theocritus. He deeply regretted the interruption of his college course, and more than once expressed his sorrow that he had not had a deeper rootage in the knowledge of Greek and other subjects in which he was interested; but he made marvelously good use of his time, and in getting at the essential things in his own field he showed not only the accuracy but the research of the scholar.

Mr. Stedman was not only a representative man of letters, but he was an inspiring example of fidelity to the ideals of his profession. He was free from the idea of the amateur that the professional writer must deal only with great themes in a wholly detached and disinterested spirit, and that any honest work of simple usefulness is beneath the dignity of letters. The real writers have never concerned themselves with these anxieties with regard to the dignity of particular kinds of work; they have been concerned only with their own dignity and purity of purpose. Mr. Stedman was deeply interested in making Americans familiar with their own literature, and put into "A Library of American Literature," which he edited in collaboration with Mrs. Cortissoz, as much thoroughness and intelligence as he put into his Johns Hopkins lectures; and the work had as much essential dignity; it was a worthy service worthily rendered to the whole Nation. He was not afraid of the terrifying word "popular," which is a term of reproach to one type of academic mind, when he undertook the preparation of a "History of Wall Street." It cannot be said too often that commercialism in the arts lies in the spirit in which a work is conceived and executed, not in the price paid for it nor in the disposition made of it. The method of work of the foremost artists in the creative ages

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of art makes short shrift of the artificial limits sometimes set to the legitimate work of the artists; they were unpurchasable, but they used the freedom of original men in the direction and disposition of the products of their genius. In work of immediate usefulness Mr. Stedman was as definitely the high-minded and conscientious artist as in shaping a poem or framing a criticism.

His loyalty to his art was expressed also in his deep and abiding faith in the indissoluble marriage of genius and hard work, of the poetic impulse and thorough craftsmanship. With the short and easy approach to art he had no sympathy. He believed devoutly in genius and he was an indefatigable and exacting workman:

> For the man who hath the most genius hath the most of God immanent in him—the most inspiration, insight, intuition, through which things "flash into his brain." . . . To stand up for genius, then, is to recognize the fact that all essential things are revealed through those most gifted with the "inward light"—all things of imagination, beauty, truth.
>
> What does me the most good is your belief in the care and sincerity of my effort, your assurance that I have not neglected those minor matters of the law which are incumbent upon drudges and geniuses alike—for the neglect of which no amount of cleverness should be permitted to make amends. The gift of writing, the graces of wit, fancy, imagination—these come by nature and are the good fortune, not the honest earnings, of an essayist or poet. But commend him justly for a scholar's accuracy, for conviction and honest purpose, and you pay him a tribute of which he has some right to be proud.
>
> What I prize in you, and in your poems, is not your immediate propagandism—good as that may be—but your purity, your *aspiration*, your *poetic gift*, and (I believe) your capacity for *growth* and *change*. My heart warms to these things, which I read in your face and between your lines. Now I have discovered one thing about art. It is not so much the material used, or the mission, as the *quality* of the workman and the gift perfected in his work. Only a poor artist, a false workman, blames his tools, or his subject, or his material. Another thing. An artist must lay hold of the universal mind—the cultured *and* the commoners.

These massive volumes could not have been written if Mr. Stedman had lacked the gift for friendship and that sense of responsibility to his art and to its younger practitioners which makes a man accessible to all appeals for help. The report of his readiness to serve young writers laid a great burden on him, against which he often protested with picturesque intensity; but he never ceased to be kind, at a great expense of time and strength. He did not sufficiently protect himself from unjustifiable intrusions, and often gave of his insight and experience to people who were unworthy. His interest in his art brought him into friendly relations with men of his own profession at home and abroad, and the breadth and interest of his correspondence may be pleaded in mitigation of sentence on the magnitude of this biography. It is far too long as a biography; it is out of perspective, so to speak, and its length will repel many readers who cared greatly for its subject. As a contribution to the history of literature in this country during the past fifty years these volumes will be of deep interest to students and to future historians. As the biography of a gifted, spirited, and influential writer they are too voluminous; they present the picture of a period rather than the portrait of a man.

THE IMMIGRATION PROBLEM

We publish on another page four letters on the immigration problem called out by our recent editorials; one is from an American, one from a Negro, one from a Japanese, one from a Jew. Thus representatives of four races contribute to the discussion of this problem. Without answering these correspondents in detail, The Outlook here restates its positions, re-explaining them in relation to these opposing views.

I. The North American Indians never possessed this continent. Five hundred thousand men roaming over a country, who neither navigate the rivers, nor harness the water powers, nor cultivate the soil, nor open the mines, do not possess the land. A united people of ninety millions who are using the resources for the world's benefit, and have cities, railways, schools, churches, colleges, and a stable government, do possess the land.

II. Our first duty is so to direct the destiny of the Nation as to hand down to our posterity the blessings which we

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have obtained. Putting our own house in order is also the first service, perhaps the greatest service, we can render to oppressed peoples in other lands. This is not only as an example to them. It is idle to open our gates to Italians and let the Black Hand follow them here, or to the Hungarians and allow them to fall into industrial conditions but little above those of slavery. To protect our own citizens from the evils produced by our unregulated immigration is not to act selfishly; it is to act justly and intelligently. If, as has been said, he that provides not for his own family is worse than an infidel, a nation which provides not for its own children is not a Christian nation. To enact that the man with a contagious disease should be welcomed to our shores would abolish the quarantine and open New Orleans to the yellow fever, San Francisco to the bubonic plague, and New York City to the cholera. We have no more right to admit to the country criminals and diseased who imperil its safety than to our homes criminal and diseased whose presence threatens the lives of our children. The tragedies in the deportation of some unfortunates at Ellis Island are more than matched by the tragedies in some of the cities, perpetrated by the Black Hand, whose agents we have admitted.

III. This guardianship of our country is rendered the more necessary and the more difficult because of the means sometimes taken by the unscrupulous to evade it. It is a customary device of immigration agents of some of the steamship companies to forward the well members of a family by one vessel and the sick members in a following vessel. When the latter are refused admission, the public are appealed to through the press in pathetic pictures of the suffering involved. Nor is it only against criminals and contagious diseases that we are to guard. We are to protect the country against any form or amount of immigration which threatens the integrity and perpetuity of American democracy. Mr. Theodore Marburg has put the issue well in a single sentence: "If shutting out immigrants seems unfair, it is unfair in a bigger way to permit the overcrowding which will place a strain upon our institutions."

IV. The exclusion of an alien race because it is alien is not so clear. And yet we believe that our statement respecting this question is fundamentally correct. But our correspondents make it clear that this statement needs further elucidation.

"It is an old adage that no house is large enough for two families. No nation is large enough for two races." That statement we reaffirm. It is true that sometimes two families succeed in keeping house together; so perhaps may two races. But the difficulties and perplexities in the double housekeeping are greater in the case of the races than in that of the families. The experiment is one not to be welcomed, certainly not to be invited. The cases of England, France, and Germany, to which Professor Kelly Miller refers, do not negative, they confirm, our position. Egypt and India are parts of the British Empire, but the Egyptians and Indians are not members of the British nation, they are subjects of the British nation. The Porto Ricans and Filipinos are not members of the American Nation, they are subjects of the American Nation. Surely Professor Miller does not desire to see on this continent and in this Nation two races living together, one subject to the other as the East Indians are subject to the British in India. All statesmen agree that at the earliest possible moment Porto Rico and the Philippines should be left to conduct their own housekeeping; the only difference between American thinkers on that point is that some of us think that they will always both need and desire an American protectorate and others do not. The conditions in Hawaii emphasize the peril which follows inviting an alien race to people American soil.

In the history of the past, whenever two races have occupied the same territory, one of four things has generally happened: one race has exterminated the other, as the Israelites are reported to have exterminated the Canaanites; one race has enslaved the other, as the Anglo-Saxons enslaved the Africans; the two races have intermarried and produced a third race, as the Normans and Anglo-Saxons did in England; or the hostility between the races has made the community an easy prey to an alien despotism, as in the Balkan Provinces. In America

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neither extermination, subjugation, nor intermarriage affords a solution of the race problem, whether between the Anglo-Saxon and the African or the Anglo-Saxon and the Mongolian.

America has to-day no more difficult question to answer than this: How can two so widely dissimilar races as the Anglo-Saxon and the African race live peaceably, prosperously, and happily together, in a self-governing republic, and preserve unimpaired the purity of both races? That problem has never been solved by any people in the past. It has not yet been solved by us. It would be disastrous to complicate that problem by adding to our population another alien race. Present experience demonstrates that the existence of unassimilable races within the Nation's borders is a handicap to its development, and it is conceivable that it might become an invitation to invasion by a hostile power.

One thing is certain: our race problem cannot be solved until the different races understand each other and respect each other. Such spirit of mutual understanding and mutual respect should precede the attempt to unite them in one nationality. It will not be promoted by compelling them to live under the same flag and share in the same government before they understand each other. We object to inviting the Japanese to come to our country in large numbers to share in our Government, for the same reason that would lead the Japanese, if they are as wise as we think they are, to object to the immigration of Americans in large numbers into Japan to share with the Japanese in the control of that country.

V. The problem presented by the Russian Jews is still more perplexing. The emigrants from Germany, Austria, Italy, are no longer driven here by foreign oppression. Life, property, and liberty are safe in those countries. The emigrants from those lands come here now for economic reasons; for good wages, not for succor from oppression. Many of them come without their families, and for a brief sojourn only, expecting to return when they have accumulated a little money. In dealing with this immigrant population America now allows the steamship lines to scour Europe and to bring over every one they can persuade to risk his passage money, and trusts to excluding the incompetent and undesirable by a sieve at this end of the line.

The Outlook believes this method to be unsatisfactory and inadequate. It advocates the establishment of a quasi-passport system, and the exclusion of the immigrant who cannot bring from his own country a passport certifying to his character, indorsed and approved by some American official abroad. It would be difficult to apply this principle in dealing with Russia. It might be difficult, but we do not think it would be impossible, to apply it to all other lands and not apply it to Russia. What we affirmed, and what we now reaffirm, is that if these difficulties cannot be overcome, we ought not to let our sympathy for the persecuted Jews, great as it is, to compel us to abandon this policy of self-preservation. If the case of the Russian Jew is exceptional, an exception to the general policy of the Nation should be made to fit the case; but the general policy of this Nation should not be determined by exceptional conditions.

And the case of the Russian Jew is exceptional. He is fleeing from oppression—oppression the most brutal now existing anywhere in a country that is called civilized. America ought not to shut its doors to the Russian Jew unless imperative necessity requires it to do so. We do not believe that such imperative necessity exists. We believe that America would be justified in calling for the certification by other countries to the character of their emigrants, because other countries are free and civilized, and in refusing to call for such certificates from Russia, because Russia is not free, and covers a sixteenth-century barbarism with a veneer of twentieth-century civilization. And we further believe that Americans can, by the creation of a public opinion, do something to secure a nearer approximation to just treatment of the Jews by the Russian Government within the Russian domain. Whether the American Government can do anything by official action we do not here consider.

With this presentation of various views on the immigration question, our own and our correspondents', we commend the whole problem to the considerate reflection of thoughtful readers.

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THE IMMIGRATION PROBLEM[1]

FOUR CRITICISMS

I—A WESTERN AMERICAN VIEW

I HAVE read with great regret your two editorials favoring the restriction of immigration. The trouble is that you look upon the matter from a selfish standpoint. You say what "we want" and "the needs of this country." You do not look upon the wants and needs of others. Your proposal amounts to monopolizing the good things we have in this country. So long as others have not the comforts we have, it is our duty to share with them. You say this land belong to "its citizens." If so, it belonged to the Indians before we came here. As they had no right to keep our fathers out, we have no right to keep out others. You might as well say the first prospectors in Alaska had a right to keep out everybody else and claim the untold wealth of gold for themselves because, forsooth, they were first there. The dwellers west of the Mississippi River have, on your theory, a right to forbid any more settlers coming into their country and taking up the fertile lands yet unoccupied. What moral right have we in this country to say to those in other countries less favored than we are that because we were here first they cannot come to share our prosperity? Is not that selfish, monopolistic? This country is not, indeed, a "county farm;" it is God's rich farm for the world's paupers.

You say our land should no longer be a "refuge for the oppressed," because the oppression in western Europe is not as great as it was. Are mercy and sympathy and justice a matter of arithmetic? So long as there is one oppressed soul, or so long as one man can improve his condition by coming here, he has a right to come.

You say we do not need "cheap labor." The question is not what we need, but what others less fortunate need. You suggest that, to be consistent, our tariff should be applied to men as well as goods. You have always held in a half-hearted way that our so-called protective tariff is wrong. Why not, then, save our consistency by doing right and abolishing the tariff rather than by extending the tariff evil?

The first proposition to exclude immigrants was raised by laborers who feared competition. How unjust that a man from abroad who got here first should forbid anybody else coming here to share his prosperity! The law forbidding a man coming to this country if he has made any arrangement for employment is a monument to our moral and intellectual stupidity.

You say that we should "select the immigrants we want." What moral right have we to raise a moral test as to who shall come here and who not? We send men abroad in the attempt to have one missionary convert twenty-five thousand heathen. Is our Christian religion so delicate that it cannot stand the introduction of one heathen among fifty Christians in this country? Shall we say that we are righteous and that others must not come to a land which God has prepared for his children because they are not as good as we are? Who gave us a title deed to every foot of land in this hemisphere, with charge to keep everybody else out whom, forsooth, we dislike?

The only reason by which we can claim a right to forbid criminals and diseased is that of self-protection. So long as we have laws to punish the criminals and medical science to cure the diseased, further steps to isolate ourselves show our selfishness and admit a fear of the inadequacy of our legal system and the inferiority of our medical skill. If a man with a contagious disease can recover quicker in America than he can elsewhere, he should be allowed to come here. It is wicked to tell a man who has suffered the penalty of his crime that he must not come to this country, wipe out the past, and take a new start. His punishment was sufficient under the laws of his own country. Must we add to it by denying him his right to come here? Why should we forbid people to come to this country if thereby they can get help? Has

[1] See on editorial page comment on these four criticisms of The Outlook's position.—THE EDITORS.

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Colorado a right to forbid consumptives to breathe its purer air?

The Christian spirit which The Outlook usually shows would remove almost all the restrictions upon coming to this country, for there is hardly a single one which can be defended by the principles which Jesus promulgated. So long as there is a single soul on the face of the globe who is not as prosperous as we are, we have no right to refuse to share our prosperity with him.

Chicago, Illinois. F. H. TUTHILL.

II—AN AFRO-AMERICAN VIEW

I have just read your striking editorial on "Oriental Immigration" in The Outlook for January 14, and was greatly surprised at the sweeping character of your conclusion. "No nation is large enough for two races" represents a dogmatic finality that is strangely out of consonance with your usual reasoned and seasoned editorial utterances. The term "nation" in this sentence is used in a loose and uncertain sense. According to the best lexical usage, a nation consists of peoples who are held together (*a*) by bonds of blood, (*b*) by common language, customs, or religion, and (*c*) by governmental or territorial ties. If you intend the word in the first sense, your statement is clearly meaningless; if in the second, it is contradicted by history and observation, as the Mohammedan situation will show; if the third, it is at variance with contemporaneous judgment and policy of the great nations of the present time. If peoples of different blood cannot be held together by a common political government, then England, France, Germany, and the United States, in their colonial policy, are merely fighting against nature, after the manner of the ancient giants. If your doctrine be sound, then Hawaii is not large enough for native and American occupants; the various South American states are not large enough for the Indian, Latin, and Spanish components of their population; and the United States is too small for the European and the African. What is to be the outcome of the race problem if this doctrine is to prevail?

Have American institutions lost the great assimilative power at one time attributed to them? Do you mean to infer that Christianity has lost its proclaimed power to allay the frictional strife among men, and thus usher in the reign of peace and good will on earth? Is this a concession that Christianity is inferior to Mohammedanism in enforcing the concrete brotherhood of man? Mr. B. L. Putnam Weale, in his recent book "The Conflict of Color," declares that Christianity has no influence or effect upon the race question. It is certainly disappointing, not to say surprising, to find that The Outlook, with its religious traditions, has shifted to this unsympathetic position.

I am sure it will not be considered unmannerly to call attention to the inconsistency of your position. It is universally understood that The Outlook is a firm and enthusiastic supporter of Dr. Booker T. Washington, whose policy is based upon the harmonious adjustment of the races in the United States, each maintaining its separate and distinct racial identity. How can this be hoped for, if "no nation is large enough for two races"?

Those who profess to deal with questions from a moral point of view may expect to be held to a line of moral consistency. The moral influence of The Outlook, as is well understood, has been on the side of those who are heavy laden and overborne. Your latest utterance, however, gives aid and encouragement to those who breathe out hatred and slaughter against the weak and the defenseless. Your dogmatic dictum will doubtless be widely quoted by the rabid race agitators in the United States, who will be glad enough to shelter their propaganda of race hatred under the shadow of the authority of so influential a journal as The Outlook.

It may, indeed, be advisable in the particular case under consideration to have the birds of a feather flock together; it may be well that the Oriental and the Occidental should forever remain each on his own side of the Pacific; but this by no means justifies the sweeping judgment that "no nation is large enough for two races." (Professor) KELLY MILLER.

Howard University, Washington, D. C.

III—A JAPANESE VIEW

Until to-day I have been paying a great deal of respect to The Outlook, as one of the leading magazines of the American

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continent. If I am correct in thinking that the people of this country place much reliance on this journal, naturally its influence must be great, and for that reason its statements should be carefully weighed. Unfortunately the article in question was written without this consideration. If The Outlook is moved by the obsolete truisms of Spencer and Kipling, and it misinterprets Hearn's observation, how can this journal discuss the world's problem in a way to lead the people to judge rightly?

(1) If the Kipling principle is true, why should America send American missionaries to China and Japan in order to promulgate the Gospel of Jesus Christ, the Oriental? Why did the European races come to the American Indian's continent for their convenience' sake? Why did America bring the Negro race from Africa to this continent against their will, and thus perpetrate a hideous outrage? These historical phenomena show how human beings are inevitably brought into intercourse, even though the motive be selfish. America brought a number of Chinese to this country to be employed as railway laborers where wild beasts used to live, but afterwards excluded them. Was it not unreasonable and impertinent?

If these tendencies of the modern American, who wants ease, fears competition, and turns to indulgence, are spreading more and more, where is the spirit—of temperance, patience, and prudence—that the Nation used to have? If Kipling's principle is an immovable truism, the European races should be keeping their dominion in their own continents, without going anywhere else; but the twentieth century is the epoch of international intermingling. Where were Christ, Buddha, Socrates, Mohammed, Confucius, born? They were all Orientals, and the so-called Occidentals are worshiping and obeying their theories and doctrines. They never promulgated the principle of human prejudice and racial exclusion. If Kipling's principle is true, the principles of these men would vanish away from the earth.

(2) Again, the twentieth century is the epoch of the intermingling of races. The United States has a great opportunity to mix races up and amalgamate them in one melting-pot. The American Indian excluded the European previously, and, without knowing them, older people always hate newcomers. If Americans of to-day show the same tendency, the leading journals should teach them not to do this. If this is a creed of the so-called civilized nation, the civilization of this nation is one century behind, and is worse than that of the old Indian. In this connection some foolish individuals of America are hungry for war, led by the yellow journals. The idea will cause unrest. Where is the leader of the Nation?

(3) Chinese immigration is strictly prohibited. The Japanese Government restricts her own emigration to this country; in fact, her statistics show that the number of Japanese coming in is less than those going back. This is not the time to waste much energy in excluding Oriental immigration.

The subject of immigration is promulgated generally among the people. The article in The Outlook will be translated into the Japanese language within a month, and it will stir up among the masses in Japan a good deal of excitement and possibly cause ill feeling. If so, the blame will be at the door of The Outlook. SEUCHI TAKEUCHI.

Los Angeles, California.

IV—A JEWISH VIEW

I am a constant and eager reader of your publication. I peruse every issue with an intense interest, not only because of the unexcelled literary merit of the material therein contained, but because of the liberality of your views on questions of vital import. This broad-mindedness has repeatedly manifested itself in your writings, and in the utterances of Dr. Abbott and your contributing editor, Mr. Roosevelt. The latter has always displayed a friendliness towards the foreign element in this country, especially Jews. And the Jews of America are his friends. They believe he is sincere. Likewise, Dr. Abbott has espoused liberalism. Although a member of the Jewish faith, I always attended Dr. Abbott's sermons at my Alma Mater, Yale, where he was one of the regular University preachers

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because his sermons were not of the dogma type. And so it was not at all startling to find in this week's issue of The Outlook a powerful editorial indorsing the article of Mr. Herman Rosenthal in the same number. In this editorial considerable sympathy is extended to the distressed and oppressed Jews in Russia. In speaking of what America can do to relieve these victims of persecution you make the emphatic assertion, "We can do much." Again: "Dr. Wise was right in saying that the Jewish question in Russia has ceased to be a Jewish or Russian question, and has become a question of humanity."

I cite these several instances to contrast more forcibly the above utterances with your views on the report of the Immigration Commission. In a recent number of The Outlook, commenting on the report, you say:

> Nor is there any adequate reason why it [the United States] should any longer be a refuge for the oppressed of other lands. In western Europe there is not now any such political oppression as drove out refugees from Ireland and Germany and Italy in the first half of the nineteenth century. In every country of western Europe the theory is entertained, as in America, that governments exist for the benefit of the governed, and life and property are as well safeguarded as in America, in many countries better safeguarded. There is no such wholesale violation of liberty as obliges us to open our doors to all exiles. Metternich and King Bomba have left no successors. The Armenian is relatively safe even in Turkey. It is only in Russia that military despotism still rules; it is only the Russian Jew that needs a refuge. And it is not our duty, nor even our right, to allow our whole international policy to be determined by sympathy for him.

What a change of heart! Acrobatic feats of the feelings!

Now, I am not good at solving word puzzles, and I appeal to you to reconcile your views on the Immigration Commission's report with those expressed in your editorial on Mr. Rosenthal's article. If "the Jewish question in Russia has ceased to be a Jewish or Russian question, and has become a question of humanity," I want to know if you deem it humane for this country to adopt the restrictive policy towards these oppressed people? Is that your version of humanity? You wear the badge of Christianity, and I want to know if it is a principle of Christianity to shut your door in the face of an oppressed brother? Are you practicing Christianity when you turn a deaf ear to anarchy, despotism, debauchery, and slaughter?

Recall your speech, Dr. Abbott, "The Religion of Service," delivered at the Ethical Culture Hall second dedication, in October last, in which you quoted your "Leader and Master" as follows:

> The Spirit of the Lord is upon me, because he hath anointed me to preach the gospel to the poor; he hath sent me to heal the broken-hearted, to preach deliverance to the captives, and recovering of sight to the blind, to set at liberty them that are bruised.

I want to know whether these words of your "Leader and Master" are reconcilable with your views on the Commission's report? Are you preaching "deliverance to the captives"? What are you doing "to set at liberty them that are bruised"? Advocating the shut door?

In closing the Dodge Lectures at Yale you declared that the object of life should not be "acquisition and self-aggrandizement, but mutual service and social welfare." What is the latitude of this "mutual service and social welfare"?

In a word, I want you, "as a Christian minister, as a disciple and follower of Him whom" you recognize as your "Leader and Master," to define your exact attitude on the immigration question, and then reconcile that attitude with the teachings of your "Leader and Master" which you profess to preach.

Until you do this the Jews of America cannot comprehend your position on a question which has become "a question of humanity."

You will render a service to Jews by giving this letter space in The Outlook.

ISADORE SHAPIRO.

Birmingham, Alabama.

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A CHILD-SAVING STATION[1]

HOW ECONOMY AND HUMANITY MAY BE PROMOTED BY THE STATE IN ITS CARE OF DEFECTIVE JUVENILE LAWBREAKERS

BY ERNEST K. COULTER

CLERK OF THE CHILDREN'S COURT OF NEW YORK COUNTY

THE stirring of men from centuries of slothful sleep to a recognition of even the most fundamental of the child's rights has been a slow process. It has ever been the story of property rights above human rights. A half-century ago we were still hanging children; a little more than thirty-five years ago we protected the dog and the horse from cruelty, but not the child. It is only within the past decade that we have ceased arraigning child victims of bad environment in company with the city's thugs. Being the weakest member of the community, the child is the last to come into its own.

But to-day we are experiencing the strange sensation of a quickening altruism. On the property side, too, we are just beginning to recognize the potentialities of the child of to-day in the affairs of to-morrow. The establishment of Children's Courts is one of the signs of an awakening public conscience. These institutions, already taking rank as the Nation's biggest life-saving stations, are throwing a flood of light on much that is still barbaric in the community's treatment of its weaker members. One of their lessons is that the municipality itself is responsible for the environment that brings thousands of its children each year into conflict with the law.

The particular, glaring sin of the State against its children to be dealt with here, however, is that which thrusts delinquents of tender years who are mentally irresponsible into ordinary reformatory institutions. These unfortunates can be classed as neither imbecile nor insane, but are those exceptional children, victims of environmental or congenital causes which irresistibly predispose them to crime. In forcing the commitment of the defective child into the ordinary reformatory institution, the State is blind to its cruelty to the child, the injustice to the institution, and the menace to the community. In this blindness and parsimony the State is thus sowing a continuous crop for its prisons and almshouses. If the public cannot be aroused to the human rights violated by this course, perhaps the money cost will one day stir it from its lethargy.

The defective, or exceptional, class of children, it is important to remember, includes not only those whose minds are stupid and who are at the mercy of their lowest instincts, but also some of those abnormally bright and unbalanced children who, unchecked, develop into criminal geniuses before they are out of their teens. The rescue of one such child and the turning of his exceptional capabilities into useful directions might mean more to the community than the saving of an institution full of ordinary children.

Now, the intention is not to make it appear here that a large proportion of the children who get into the Juvenile Courts are mentally deficient. After a near view of about eighty thousand cases of children under the age of sixteen who have been brought before a single tribunal with which it is my privilege to be connected, I assert positively that the vast majority who are charged with conflict with the law are absolutely normal from the standpoint of their surroundings. That is, these children are no different from others who have grown up in the same kind of environment.

There are a lot of sentimentalists who would have it appear that every other child arraigned for juvenile delinquency, or because of improper guardianship, is abnormal. They are doing much harm. They are charging up and down the land in their efforts to find children with criminal bumps to prove their sentimental

[1] Physicians and surgeons consider the question of how to prevent defective delinquent children from growing into hardened criminals so important that a meeting of the neurological section of the New York Academy of Medicine, held on January 19 last, was devoted to its discussion. Mr. Coulter was asked to read this paper on that occasion as one of three formal addresses from experts.—THE EDITORS.

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theories. They would pounce on every child who has happened to be arrested, whether for playing "shinny" or for homicide, and search his person for the stigmata of degeneration. If the boy stole a pie, then some place on his head they, by the grace of their imaginations, a pair of calipers, and perhaps a spirit-level, will find a pie bump. Did he hit another boy in a stone fight? Then some place in his brain convolutions they will find a kink productive of cruelty. They would promptly jimmy into the head of every boy who got before the Court, tamp out the supposed twists in his brain lobes, tack up the crevices, and turn him back to his parents a paragon of virtue.

But, approaching the subject from the standpoint of common sense, there are certain well-defined cases of mental deficiency among juvenile delinquents which even the layman can recognize. It would be rash for me to set an exact percentage of the mentally defective children who get into conflict with the law. This could be determined with anything like accuracy only by specially qualified experts in psychopathology. A conference of a committee to bring about some recognized and established help for those delinquents, juvenile and adult, who are mentally defective, of which committee I am a member, has been held recently. Figures were presented by men connected with various institutions which show in a startling manner the need for the special treatment of these unfortunates, and particularly in the period leading to and during adolescence, if we are to cope successfully with the growing army of criminals and paupers. The Superintendent of the Bedford Reformatory for Women, for instance, reported that an examination of thirty-five of the inmates of that institution showed that thirteen were sub-normal. This examination was conducted by experts and covered a period of three months. The declaration was made without hesitation that thirty-three per cent of the inmates of that reformatory were mentally defective. It was further reported that thirty-nine per cent of the inmates of the Elmira Reformatory were mentally defective, and seventy per cent were physically defective. If while these defectives were still children the causes of the abnormal mental condition which predisposed them to prey on society could have been removed, many of them would have been saved to useful citizenship. With such cases the time for relief, if curative or ameliorating remedies are possible, is in youth and at the first indication of criminal tendencies. One advantageous opportunity, therefore, would be through our Children's Courts, whereto such unfortunates will naturally drift after open manifestations of criminal tendencies. The Children's Court of New York County alone handles about ten thousand cases each year. It is a great clearing-house for juvenile troubles, big and little. Practically one-half of the children are taken into custody because of alleged trivial offenses, acts growing out of the child's normal instinct for play. I am so glad that it was not a crime to play ball in the street when I was a youngster, otherwise I would have been regarded as an habitual criminal. We would no more expect to find a great percentage of mentally defective children arraigned for such offenses than we would among a crowd of boys and girls that we corralled haphazard on the street.

Those children whose mental deficiencies, however, lead them irresistibly to steal, to commit assaults, to torture, to burn, are certain to come at one time or another to the bar of the children's tribunal. The causes of the overwhelming tendencies that array them against society may often be determined by pathological and psychological examination. Such causes, for instance, may be the existence of adenoids, which retard normal development, render the child irritable and mentally lazy; they may be the absence of thyroid glands, which brings about cretinism; they may be due to hereditary syphilis, which often results in a lesion of the brain. The children of this class are not responsible for the acts that lead to their commitment to reformatories. Taken in childhood, these causes may often be removed and the victim restored to society a normal being. A correct diagnosis is absolutely essential. Without a correct diagnosis no rational treatment is possible.

The superintendent of an orphanage at Hastings was present at the recent con-

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ference already mentioned. He is recognized as a sane and most capable man in his field. The statement was made by him that six per cent of the children in his institution were mentally defective. As I have stated, I would not venture to give the exact percentage of mental defectives arraigned for conflict with the law. For sake of argument let us say it is two—I believe more will be accomplished by a conservative estimate than by a sensational figure that will not prove in the final analysis.

State and private charity does not hesitate to establish institutions for groups of two hundred ordinary children who have been found without proper guardianship or are juvenile delinquents. Yet with this conservative estimate of two per cent of mental defectives there are two hundred of these unfortunates coming into the Children's Court of New York County alone each year, not to mention the three other Children's Courts in the Greater City. While there are more than thirty institutions to which the Court in New York County can commit children, there is not one where those of the mentally defective type can be sent on legal commitments.

There is no adequate provision for even the discovery of such deficiencies among those children who are taken into custody, and none for their treatment. Dr. M. G. Schlapp, who is so well known to the Academy of Medicine by his splendid work in this field, has been good enough to give a portion of his time to the Court and to the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, without compensation and without assistance. But with the present inadequate arrangement Dr. Schlapp can examine only those isolated cases that are occasionally brought to his attention by laymen connected with the Court or the Society. There is absolutely no sifting out in a reasonable or scientific way, and where a case of out-and-out mental deficiency is discovered in a juvenile delinquent there is no place where that child can receive proper treatment. The result is that such of these children as are committed to ordinary institutions are being made into habitual criminals and paupers, each too an agent for the reproduction of his kind in later years.

To show what actually happens in the Children's Courts in these cases I am going to visualize. I am purposely omitting the names, but the details of every case that I describe here can be verified.

A lad with keel-shaped head, wandering eyes set close together, and a scant upper lip, is arraigned for stealing.

"He's been here five times and he has been committed twice," despairingly declares the representative of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children.

The Court studies the forlorn and anæmic figure before him. Nature and the world have combined against that boy. His equipment at the start has been deficient, and because of a conventional order of things with which he has been constantly in conflict he has never had anything like a chance to get himself into proper adjustment with his surroundings. The Superintendent of the House of Refuge, where the boy spent more than eighteen months on his last commitment, has sent word to the Court that he does not want the lad there; he can do nothing with him, as he is a total misfit in his institution. "What am I to do?" asks the Judge. "To send him back to the Refuge is to make him forever a criminal; to release him is to work an injustice to society."

Here is a small cog that will not fit in the machinery of a single existing reformatory. If the cog is driven in, it is irreparably damaged, and the machinery is thrown out of gear.

But it all ends in this case, as it does in the cases of other defective delinquents, with the boy being led back, rebellious and bitter, to the very reformatory that struggled vainly over him—this because there is no other place to send him. He will be put to the same tasks and in the same classes with normal boys. Whether set to manual work or study, tasks set him may be willed, even commenced, but never performed. There is an excellent school system in this institution, but it has been discovered in the Court that this boy, after all his instruction, cannot spell the words "cat" or "the." To enable him to make any progress in the most rudimentary branches the constant individual attention of one teacher and endless patience would be required. Even

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in one of the more modern reformatory institutions for ordinary delinquents conducted on the cottage plan there could be no adequate care or treatment for such a boy. What was needed here was medical and mental treatment by experts in a special institution.

There are two institutions in New York State where this lad could have received something approaching the needed treatment. But these hospitals are not open to court commitments, and, aside from that, they are constantly overcrowded and have long waiting lists.

But to illustrate further. Jacob, fifteen years old, is arraigned in the Children's Court for the sixth time. He has twice been in reformatory institutions, once for larceny and again for robbery. Rather, that is what his offenses would have amounted to had he been over the age of sixteen years. The Children's Courts of New York do not find children guilty of crime, but of juvenile delinquency only. Jacob's sixth arraignment had been for stabbing another boy. He had apparently been making fine progress under the supervision of his lawyer uncle after his last release from a reformatory. He seemed to possess more than ordinary intelligence for a boy of his years. He had frequently gone to court for the lawyer uncle to answer the call of the calendar. But children who lived near Jacob knew he had been in the House of Refuge, and, in the thoughtless cruelty of which childhood is often guilty, they sometimes taunted him. He was on his way home one evening when a boy rode up on a bicycle and called teasingly:

"When did you beat the Ref.?"

Jacob flew into an old-time rage and kicked the bicycle, upsetting the rider. His tormentor scrambled to his feet and struck him. Jacob then drew a knife and repeatedly stabbed the other.

When brought to the Children's Court, Jacob tried to dash his brains out against the wall.

"I don't want to go back to the Island," he begged, and it required three attendants to hold him.

It had developed, shortly after this boy had been committed the first time, that he was a defective. Without provocation he had suddenly attacked another boy in the institution and almost chewed off one of his ears. He subsequently attempted to kill an officer of the institution while he was in the "meditation division," where he was to stand in isolated confinement as a punishment for his first outbreak. The Superintendent of the institution then sent Jacob to the psychopathic ward at Bellevue Hospital for observation. The resident alienist, after careful study of the case, went on record as follows:

"We are of the opinion that this is not a proper case for care in one of our institutions [State insane asylums] within the meaning of the statute. However, the boy shows evidences of constitutional mental defects due to lack of development. From your history as well as our examination of the boy it appears that he suffers from attacks, probably of the nature of epilepsy. In these attacks these patients are not responsible; do not know what they are doing. Although there is no doubt of his lack of mental stability and of his defective development, he is not a proper case for care and custody within the meaning of the statute."

With all these facts before it, there was nothing for the Court to do but send Jacob back for the third time to a reformatory that could only make him irredeemably a confirmed criminal and whose discipline would be upset by his presence.

Another recent case to show how the Children's Courts are handicapped by a lack of proper hospitals: Within three months after his last release a boy who had twice been in a protectory was twice arrested for stealing. His last offense had been the larceny of $20 from his mother. He rallied a band of younger boys about him, bought pistols, and, far from his home in the Bronx, with the help of his companions, he dug a cave. Here he and his band had their abode for several days until a policeman lassoed a disappearing leg of the chief as he dived into his hole after he had ventured forth to reconnoiter. It developed at the hearing in the Children's Court that the boy had in him a strange strain of cruelty. He had taken particular delight at one time in hacking off a dog's tail. Several times he had chopped off the legs of live chickens. His appearance indicated mental

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deficiency, and the Court sent him to Dr. Schlapp for examination. The physician's report declared that the boy was a moral imbecile. Again there was no proper institution available.

It sometimes happens that these defectives know that their afflictions render them irresponsible. A boy whose fiendish outbreaks of temper made it impossible for his parents to manage him was committed recently to a protectory. On having a task assigned him there, he balked and finally fought with his teachers, declaring: "I didn't come here to work, but to get my nose cured. I'd be all right if they'd only cure my nose." It was then discovered that he had growths in his nose and trouble with his throat that created nervousness and a mental condition that incapacitated him from work or study.

The abnormally bright delinquents, those with astute minds but without equilibrium, offer an even more interesting study. The record of a genius, even though he be a criminal, is naturally more attractive than that of a low order of defective. The diverting of this genius from criminal into useful ways might be of inestimable value to the State even in a single case.

A frank-faced youngster of fourteen, apparently a junior Chesterfield, was arraigned in the Children's Court a few years ago, charged with having stolen a large amount of money from a department store by a series of clever forgeries. His attractive face, polite speech, and quiet reserve, set off by his patent ties, immaculate turn-down collar, and neat knickerbockers, marked him in strange contrast to the motley throng of boys that usually face the judge. It seemed incongruous that such a lad could be charged with swindling. Even the detective who had taken him into custody was half inclined to ask that the complaint be dismissed—he feared he had made a mistake. But to the fatherly, keen-minded judge, who had a long talk with the boy, he finally confessed that he had forged the checks on which the complaint was based. This boy, who had come out of the West, had, when he was eleven years of age, edited a newspaper of which he was the founder. His father was a poor printer. With no collateral other than his unmitigated nerve he had traveled through the country and had stopped at the best hotels. He was living at the Waldorf-Astoria when arrested. He had an interesting interview with Russell Sage, and I am told that he even induced the late financier to invest in one of his Western schemes. This perhaps speaks more for the boy's persuasive powers than anything I could say.

Following the announcement of the boy's arraignment in the Children's Court here there came a stream of letters from men and women who had met him in parlor cars, in hotel lobbies, in restaurants, East and West. One level-headed priest wrote that he had spent the greater part of a day in conversation with the lad on a railway train. He declared that, although he was quiet in demeanor, the boy was chronically in a state of mental exaltation.

When this young marvel was committed to a reformatory, the officers of the institution were urged, for the boy's own good, to keep him in the background and away from visitors. About three months later, when I was one of five hundred or more guests at a Washington's Birthday celebration at this same institution, what was my amazement to see in the spot-light, holding the center of the stage, in powdered queue and cocked hat, this very lad as George Washington himself. The Court's commitment had been indeterminate, and in an ordinary case the shortest time in which he would have been released was a year and a half; he, however, in a few months more, had talked himself out of the institution and into a Washington bank. His shrewd mind quickly grasped enough important details of that business to enable him to disappear soon with a considerable sum of the bank's money. He was arrested later in a Western State and sent to a reformatory. He declared later that he would never again commit a criminal act. On his release he obtained employment as a traveling salesman.

Between midnight and dawn one morning, in a Kansas City hotel, he turned on both jets of gas in his room, and was dead when discovered. Beside the body of this boy, who was then only eighteen years old, was found this note: "Worry,

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unhappiness, undeserved condemnation, and hatred of doing wrong are the cause."

The note told the truth. He realized his own mental irresponsibility. The strain had been too much for him. Could this boy's marvelous abilities have been properly guided, could he have received the right treatment under the direction of expert neurologists at the first indication of his criminal tendencies, could he have been subjected to the needed supervision and control during the period of adolescence, another name would have been added to the roll of the country's great financiers.

Within the past few weeks a boy of seventeen, whom the writer has been watching for months, has been declared by a commission to be irresponsible, and has been sent to the prison for criminally insane at Matteawan. This lad, apparently a splendid specimen of budding physical manhood, and coming from a refined home, has never had proper treatment. Could he have been examined by experts at the first indication of criminal bent, and could he have been sent to a proper institution, the story to-day would be very different. His parents, unable to keep him at home, had sent him to one private school and military academy after another. He was dismissed from all. Finally his parents, broken-hearted over his misdeeds, had him committed to a semi-private reformatory. He twice made his escape. He had quite as agreeable a personality as did the criminal genius who committed suicide in the Kansas City hotel. But he did not hesitate to prey on his friends. After his last larceny the commission appointed to inquire into his mental condition found that he had degenerated into a moral imbecile. But now it is too late to save him, and, as there is no other place to send him, it is likely that he will spend most of the balance of his days in company with the out-and-out criminal insane, many of them convicts who have been transferred from State's prisons. One of the greatest alienists has declared that this boy could have been saved had he been taken in time. An accident at the time of his birth is thought to have had much to do with his trouble.

There have been the exceptional children, usually girls, who, because of fancied grievances, have attempted suicide. One sensitive boy, whose mental deficiency and stuttering were related, lately attempted suicide because his teacher in a moment of petty temper mimicked him—an act which should have barred her forever from the schools. But she is still teaching. Some boys of the exceptional class show morbid cravings for sympathy and marvelous genius for evolving out of thin air stories of mothers murdered by fathers, of escapes from atrocious cruelties at home, of strange travels and adventures. One of these lads, who had never been off Manhattan Island, told of the slaughter of his parents in South Africa, of wanderings from port to port, with such cunningly devised detail and plausibility that he kept the Court guessing for a week. Another boy, who had feigned blindness and had been picked up on a charge of having no proper guardianship, deceived for eight days with his upturned eyeballs and helpless gropings the officers of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, in whose custody he was during all that time.

The number of children in the public schools of New York City whose mental defectiveness is recognized is seven thousand, or about one per cent of the total school attendance. If expert neurologists examined all the children, the number would probably reach ten thousand. Naturally, the number of mental defectives who come into the Children's Courts would form a higher percentage than would be shown in the schools. And while in the schools a certain small number is pressed into the ungraded classes established for children unable to make normal progress, where they are provided with special instruction, there is, nevertheless, no real sifting-out process. Even if there were, the city at present has no adequate provision for the proper treatment of such mental defectives.

The New York Children's Courts, on rare occasions, resort to a sort of legal subterfuge and commit defective delinquents to the Department of Charities, trusting that they will be sent to the Children's Hospital on Randall's Island. The same situation as to the lack of the special type of institution required exists in practically all parts of the country.

There, is indeed, need of a general awakening to the fact that a number of

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mentally defective and exceptional children are arraigned in the Children's Courts each year, and, although they are not responsible for their acts, they are being thrust, as we have seen, into ordinary reformatory institutions. Here there is nothing for them but acute suffering and, in the end, habitual criminality. One exceptional child with criminal tendencies—and it is to be remembered that he may be a genius or near-idiot—is often a potentiality for tremendous evil. In its gradual abandonment of antiquated and barbarous methods of treating child offenders the State must recognize that the mentally defective and exceptional child requires a special process of training. The State, in fact, can ill afford to hesitate longer in taking this step in line with humanitarian progress.

BUSINESS SENTIMENT[1]

BY HERBERT G. STOCKWELL

ON a suburban train homeward bound at the end of the day sat, with a friend, the proprietor of a large paint factory. Immediately behind was the president of an important warehouse company, who leaned forward with a hearty "How are you?" to his friends in front.

An interchange of pleasantries followed this greeting. A compliment from one of those on the front seat to the warehouse man elicited the response, "I tell you that a glad hand-clasp and a hearty greeting go a long way even in business." The conversation drifted into a friendly discussion of

SENTIMENT IN BUSINESS

The warehouse man related that while yet a boy in a glass manufacturer's office the proprietor had once said to him, "John, I want to impress you with the thought that if we can get our customers to *give us the preference* we shall do well." The warehouse man, now successful, added: "What a tremendous thought lies in that simple expression! All other things being equal, if business men will give any man a preference over others in his line, he will get all the business he can handle."

This thought embodies one of the forms in which sentimentality expresses itself in business. What is sentiment? What is business? Those who estimate business to be the abstract incarnation of all that is grasping and greedy can scarcely appreciate the indescribable effect of subtle influences passing back and forth between men, prompting acts not directly urged by thoughts of gain. Men who entertain such opinions will spontaneously spurn the idea that so weak a characteristic as sentiment exists in business transactions. Yet the day in the life of any business man during which he has not been guided by other than absolutely sordid calculations is rare indeed. What is sentiment? When we seek to frame the question in a way to call for a business answer, we are almost compelled to inquire concerning the effect upon business of the elimination of sentiment. What is business *without* sentiment? seems as intelligent a question to put as to ask, "What is sentiment *in* business?"

WHAT IS BUSINESS?

What an inclusive word is business! Your business! My business! Business consists of anything that occupies our time and attention. We may be concerned in manufacturing, mercantile, or professional pursuits, or engaged in the study of religion, art, or literature; so long as whatever we do occupies our time and attention, we are in business. If we are *busy* at anything, we are in business; if *idle*, whatever we call our nominal occupation, we are not in business. Now, it can be seen that business is nothing but an expression indicating purposeful activity.

[1] The third of a series of five articles by Mr. Stockwell. Other articles will be found in The Outlook for January 14 and February 11.—THE EDITORS.

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Any transaction involving the thing that we are especially interested in doing constitutes business. Acts, not facts, make business.

We can no more dissociate the act of a man from the man himself than we can think of a man without form. Our acts are the fruits of thought and desire. Mind and will! What else is there to a man? His brains and heart are constantly influenced by and influencing those surrounding him. One could with difficulty imagine a man cold-blooded enough to go through one short business day immune from environing atmospheres.

RESISTANCE TO GOOD INFLUENCES WELL-NIGH IMPOSSIBLE

No, much as we might resolve, we cannot escape the influences going forth from our associates. Affection will manifest itself everywhere. Few cold-blooded business propositions are ever carried through to a conclusion with entire absence of feeling. The reason is obvious. Action never occurs until the will is set in motion. What is *will* but a bundle of desires, and what are desires but a bundle of passions more or less acute, more or less noble?

Thus we see that business acts are always accompanied by feelings of some sort. This feeling may not always belong to the highest class. Sometimes it may not be properly described as sentiment. Some motives in business transactions may be of the baser sort; and it is to the occasional exhibitions of this class of wrong passions that the negative expression "No sentiment exists in business" may be charged. What we really mean to say is that no purely unselfish motives are to be found in the ordinary course of business transactions. I am ready to combat even this restated proposition. So far from being a true statement of the case, it is contrary to the experience of all thoughtful observers. Take salesmanship, for example. One of the most prominent characteristics of the successful salesman consists in his ability to obtain an order through *friendship*. He seeks and obtains a *preference* over his fellows who have merchandise to offer of equal texture and price. Note the disappointment creeping through us when an order or commission or prospective fee, thought to be on its way to us, has been directed to other channels. Somebody else obtained the preference, to our undoing.

FRIENDLY FEELINGS MUST BE RECIPROCAL

Theoretically we place our wares on the market without plea for favors—but only theoretically. We consciously or unconsciously seek the preference of every one who will grant it. The foundation for the success of a business man is friendship, and he must cultivate it to get far on in the world.

This friendship must be reciprocal. No man can long stand the drain of one-sided favors. The bitter experience of those who have attempted to "hog it" attests the truth of this observation.

Some years ago a soap manufacturer became suddenly prosperous. Fortunate advertisements created a demand for his soap to such an extent that he became autocratic in his dealings with merchants who sent orders to him. It is said that so exaggerated was his idea of his importance that prominent wholesale houses of unquestioned financial standing were compelled by this soap manufacturer to send the actual cash with each order. He would not even accept their checks. This irritating rule was complied with under strong protest. While the fad for his soap lasted the king held fearful sway, but when his meteor began to fall and his soap ceased to be deemed an absolute necessity by the people, did the merchants experience feelings of regret? Did they come forward and offer to bolster up the shrinking king? You can depend upon it, his fall was short and hard. He had robbed himself of the most precious thing a man can have in business—his friends.

Sometimes the effects of preference in business are obvious; in other cases the recipient of the favor never knows to whom or what he is indebted. A friendly act or charitable deed by a merchant may be recalled by a purchaser in time to effect his choice as between several merchants otherwise equal in his eyes.

In directors' meetings it frequently happens that when the letting of contracts is being considered, there are two or more bidders so nearly equal in price and responsibility that there is little opportu-

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nity for the exercise of business judgment. More often than not one of the directors will suggest that one of the bidders be given the contract because he knows of some worthy act or good trait of character possessed by the man whose name he mentions. What motive prompted the decision? Nothing but friendly feeling—sentiment.

Perhaps the most striking example of deliberate and premeditated preference is shown in an incident that occurred a short time ago in Chicago.

A retail shoe man, a druggist, and a young lawyer sat at lunch together one stormy day. Business conditions were discussed and frank confessions by each as to the amount of his own business came without hesitation. The lawyer felt somewhat discouraged in having to report very little work to do. It was noticed that he had eaten sparingly. He left the restaurant before the others had finished. No sooner had he proceeded beyond hearing distance than the shoe dealer said to the other:

"It's a shame that Jim can't get more business. He has more brains than any other fellow I know. I wonder whether we can help him in any way."

"I've just been thinking the same thing," replied his friend. "What do you say to 'boosting' him among our friends? I don't mean just the ordinary glad word when somebody asks us about him. What I mean is this: You and I will make a business of bringing his name up every time we meet anybody likely to have any law business to give out."

After some further planning the two friends separated. Thereafter they sought every opportunity to bring the lawyer to the notice of their business friends, with the result that within six months the lawyer reported a very busy practice. Of course he learned to whom he was indebted, and he gladly vouches for the truth of the story.

TRY IT YOURSELF

If any man or woman in business doubts the prevalence of this sentiment in business, let him or her review the things heard, seen, and done during the course of any selected day. Those who, in checking off the occurrences passing before their memories, fail to find stirring examples of friendship may assure themselves, not that such things have not taken place, but rather that they have not been heeded.

Preferences may be given and not appreciated. Pure motives prompting helpful assistance may be misinterpreted and the good deed turned into evil in the sight of the recipient; nevertheless, the good deed is there, although the perception is deficient.

The successful business man who has risen head and shoulders above the men of ordinary ability is quick to recognize *preferences* and to return the favors. He *remembers* his friends, knowing that forgotten kindness cools the ardor of even the warmest heart.

Moreover, he does not await the first offerings from his friends. He is ready to *create* evidences of his big way of doing business. He extends preferences to others in advance of any foreseen opportunity for the return to him.

Be ready to give something not "nominated in the bond," and you will surely find responsive hearts. There is no secret of success more pronounced in its effectiveness than the proper exercise of good sentiment in business.

But let us not forget that we must first earn a deserved reputation for square dealings before we are rightfully entitled to seek preferment. Our goods or services must be at least equal to the best, and our contracts must be faithfully executed, before we can hope to cultivate successfully that preferred friendship which forms the crowning triumph of an honorable business career.

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BIRDS OF THE SOUTHERN WINTER

BY ARCHIBALD RUTLEDGE

TO the blizzard-bound Northerner there is no more fascinating form of imagination than to picture to himself the sunny homes that have been found by his bird friends that have migrated southward. Yet few bird lovers can have an accurate idea of the winter surroundings of their summer favorites unless they have observed them in the South.[1] This brief paper will therefore set forth the environment and the manner of life of some of the best-known Northern birds as they are found in their winter haunts; and since the robin usually begins the springtime, it may be well to mention him first.

It is a well-known fact that the robin changes his disposition with his location; when on the lawn he may be the most confiding and friendly companion, but at any distance from a house he is apt to develop traits of wildness and suspicion. The characteristic of wariness is always found among robins in the South. In general, the robin is songless in his winter quarters, his only notes being his liquid word of alarm and his shrill flight call. Occasionally, however, a flock will give voice to a subdued chorus, audible at a considerable distance through the hollow-echoing "piny woods." These great pineries of the Southland, together with the swamps that drain—or more often do not drain—them, harbor robins in vast numbers. Near the mouth of the Santee River in southeastern South Carolina the writer recently tried to estimate the number of robins in a flight that was "changing swamps." How wide the flight was is not known, but the portion upon which the estimate was based passed over an open field (completely surrounded by tall pines) a quarter of a mile long by a half-mile wide. Over this space the robins flew from noon until dusk—about five hours. At any fixed period there must have been a thousand robins in sight; so, estimating that it took a robin a minute and a half to fly across the field, the total number seen could not run far short of two hundred thousand. Probably the number was much greater. During this hurried passage the birds were silent except for an occasional flight call, which would be answered by a score of similar cries.

In the liberal semi-tropical woods of the South the robins have a "continual feast of nectared sweets." They feed chiefly on the black berries of the gum tree, on those of the tupelo, on the scarlet ones of the holly, the cassena, and the bay brier, and on those of that peculiar hybrid the wild orange. They are also very fond of the faintly sweet crumpled yellow berries of the Pride-of-India tree. The swamps and thickets are full of berry-laden vines, while every watercourse is lined with growths bearing succulent fruits. It is a fact not generally known that the fruit of the wild orange—a semi-domesticated evergreen, bearing small black berries, not edible, about the size of gooseberries—contains an acid that is intoxicant; and the writer has seen robins, gorged on this rich food, become silly and dazed, and actually fall to the ground in what was apparently a drunken stupor. It has been suggested that this unfortunate state was brought about by the birds' gluttony; and while this theory may be correct, the other seems nearer right, since robins are not known to suffer ill effects from overeating other kinds of food. One of the most beautiful sights in all the pine woods of the South is that of a flock of robins feasting in a holly tree. The bark of the tree is grayish white, and the leaves, of course, are those of a typical evergreen. The holly often attains (especially near water) a height of fifty or sixty feet, and is usually cone-shaped, like many varieties of cedar; and when its glossy foliage is starred with myriads of twinkling scarlet berries, its beauty is supreme. It looks as, perhaps, a Christmas tree would look in paradise. When the redbreasts, roaming the wide woods, come upon such a glorious find, they are as happy as little children are over the beneficence of Santa Claus. They crowd into the green foliage, their bright breasts flashing back and forth against the dark green of the leaves and the shadowy snow

[1] These observations were made near Charleston, South Carolina.

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of the trunk and branches, or blending in glistening beauty with the color of the berries. In the delight of such feasting a robin will occasionally resort to a shady alcove in the tree or on some retired limb near by, there to give rather droll and thoughtful utterance to some half-forgotten notes of spring song. Other robins, on near-by perches, will preen their feathers until their turn for berries comes, when they will fly into the tree, whence will instantly emerge those that have had their share of feasting. There seems always to be much good-fellowship manifest, and there is little quarreling except on the part of a few male birds that doubtless have begun to feel the significance of crabbed age. The belief of those who hold that a flock of robins in a berry tree is continually "scrapping" doubtless arises from the habit that the birds have of fluttering before the fruit they intend taking; and when flocks do this, and myriads flutter about a tree, calling in delight and excitement, the casual impression given is one of woodland warfare. As the winter advances, robins draw in from the pine woods and the swamps to cities, villages, and plantations, where they find winter-mellowed fruit awaiting them. In such environments the robins lose much of their wild and wary nature, and become the friendly, confiding birds of the Northern spring and early summer.

Among the sweet-voiced lurkers in thickets and in coverts that Milton has called "bosky bournes" the catbird and the brown thrasher are worthy of most notice. The veery, that superb mysterious voice of the woodland, winters in South America, as does the wood-thrush, else these had glorified the winter in the Southern States, would they indeed deign to sing at such a season. When the first breath of autumn tinges the Southern woods, the catbirds arrive, and immediately begin their foraging for pokeberries. This luscious bird fruit is commonly found along fence-rows, in grown-up cleared ground, and on the borders of thickets; and there our querulous arrival is to be seen whisking from pokeberry bush to rail fence, where he will fluff up his feathers, then smooth them—actually flatten them—and, flirting his red-tinged tail, will peer inquisitively from side to side, giving his cautious, questioning call. It may be a fancy, or it may be that this is true only of certain birds that have been observed, but the catbird in the South appears to have more red in his plumage than the same bird in the North; but he has little enough in either home. All winter long catbirds are to be found in thickety growths that afford them shelter and food. The brown thrashers, as a rule, inhabit the denser copses, where their favorite occupation seems to be scratching—literally shuffling—among the dead leaves for whatever gain such capers afford. They are more frequent singers during the winter than catbirds, though their exquisite lyrics of the dawn and the twilight are heard only with the coming of love in the springtime.

Cedar waxwings are welcome visitors to the South in the winter, for, while they are shy and silent, their manners are attractively demure and their plumage rivals in delicate tints the exquisite blending of shades usually found only on game birds. They are late nesters in the North, being, in fact, rather negligent about the performance of this essential duty; for it is often as late as August before a brood is reared. When their scattered bands wander southward, they unite; so frequently they may be observed in flocks of several hundred. The food they enjoy most is the waxen berry of the mistletoe, though in general they eat just what robins eat, and the two species are often found associated together.

Mourning-doves range from Cuba to Ontario, and nest almost throughout their range, though most of them are migrants. Their movements, however, are slow, and are regulated chiefly by the amount of grain that can be gleaned from the stubble fields. By the first of September they are well in flight, and by November the South is overrun with them. There they are to be differentiated from the little rosy-breasted ground-dove (known locally as the "mourning-dove"), whose note is as crooning as that of its soberer-hued relative is grieving. Doves in the South during the winter feed in open fields much as they do in the North, and roost in great numbers in pine or myrtle thickets, sheltered from the wind. In the daytime, during their resting or siesta periods they resort to cypress or willow

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bordered streams, and to the murmuring spires of lofty pines, where they sun themselves and drowse in the high aromatic air. In pea or cotton fields of any size it is no unusual thing to flush a thousand doves or more; and birds disturbed in this manner invariably fly toward the nearest dry-topped tree. This habit has well-nigh proved fatal to the species, for, by posting themselves under such trees and by sending out riders over the fields, hunters can kill incredible numbers of doves. A recent report from a branch of the Audubon Society in Alabama stated that a half-dozen hunters in a single day had killed several thousand doves in one cotton-field by the method just described. Fortunately the Southern States have awakened to the importance of protecting their birds, and wise laws have put a stop to such slaughter.

It was while pursuing a flock of doves in a Southern corn-field that the writer proved the excellent saying of John Burroughs, that in bird study "what no man ever saw before may at any moment be revealed."

Hampton Plantation is one of those vast old rice estates along the lower Santee River in South Carolina. It has always been remarkably rich in bird life. One eventful day in November, 1896, while in a field adjacent to the river, my attention was attracted by the sight of a dove twice the size of those in the flock; its tail was longer and more pointed, and the sheen on its neck glistened and gleamed in the soft autumn sunlight. The difference in its plumage from that of the ordinary dove was visible at a considerable distance. The bird was excessively wary, and, though it was difficult to approach, it would not fly far. It seemed tired, as if it had just completed a long migratory flight. After following it for more than an hour, I succeeded in shooting it. Upon close examination it proved to be a genuine passenger pigeon. This conclusion was confirmed by my father, who, as a boy, had seen many thousands of these beautiful birds feeding in the oak trees on the slopes of the mountains in North Carolina. This was the last wild pigeon ever taken in South Carolina, and one of the last observed in America. Arthur Wayne, the well-known Southern ornithologist, the author of "The Birds of South Carolina," saw a pair of wild pigeons in Greenville County of that State in 1886; but, expert as he is in observation, and tireless as he is in pursuit, he has since that time seen no member of this splendid species. And that excellent bird lover Frank M. Chapman reports that in eighteen years of field work he has seen but two specimens of the passenger pigeon.

Among the bird sights that have the power to impress through sheer wonder and astonishment none is greater or more beautiful than a vast concourse of red-winged blackbirds, either covering long aisles of cypresses as with a sable mantle or balling in inky clouds over the rice stubble. It is estimated that in such flocks the number runs close on half a million. Sometimes they light in some favorite feeding-place (as where a stack of rice has stood) in such countless numbers that they actually swarm on one another's backs, seeming to be two or three tiers deep. The record shot for such a target is one hundred and sixty-eight birds with two barrels. Blackbirds in the winter resort to the river marshes and the waste thickets of delta lands both to feed and to roost. In company with the red-wings there are often boat-tailed grackles, Florida grackles, and rusty blackbirds. Occasionally, too, there will be seen an albino of one of these species, and a most odd and surprising sight it is.

Blackbirds are very destructive to rice, both while it is in the field and after it has been stacked. The tops of the stacks are soon shredded of their grain; but birds forage along the sides all winter. Some kinds of birds, particularly blackbirds and several varieties of the sparrow family, beleaguer the rice all day; but it is at dawn or at twilight that the stacks are gathering-places for all the birds on the plantation. There flames the cardinal, his haughty crest rising and falling with every change in his subtle and various emotions; there the blue jay, ceasing his endless pranks and his noisy clamoring in the live-oaks, will sail out of the top of a tall tree to find his supper at a common table among humbler companions; sometimes the tufted titmouse will feed on rice, as also will flickers; most remarkable of all, perhaps, is the appearance of a hermit

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thrush among the motley concourse of birds.

In general, the birds of the Southern winter are not singers; and the absence of the lyric strain is a serious defect in a character whose chief charm, as in the case of song birds, is romantic. But probably we should not love their songs half so well if we could hear them all the time. During the winter months even the glorious mocking-bird is a harsh-mannered, harsh-voiced neighbor, though a balmy, bright hour is apt to melt his heart and to lure him into song. Probably the cheeriest, bonniest, of all the winter birds is the intrepid, the dauntless, the deliciously pert and inquisitive Carolina wren, whose carol rings merrily from the faded garden or from the wind-swept wood-pile. During all the months of bare trees and north winds he is caroling jauntily, investigating outhouses and cellars, always with his busy air of absurd importance.

No migrant changes its nature so completely during different periods of the year as does the bobolink. In the North, where this sportive songster is found in grassy meadows and along reed-grown streams in the summer, he is the personification of blithe joy and abandon. Bryant's poem to him is an excellently accurate description of his summer nature; but during his stay in the South he is an entirely different creature. While he is not really a resident of the Southern States during the winter (he winters as far south as Paraguay and southern Brazil), his stay at the end of the summer is often six weeks in length—ample time in which to study a bird in a "stop-over" environment. In the rice-fields of the South he is a most interesting (as well as a most destructive) bird, and his presence adds to the picturesqueness of the great rice harvest. The bobolinks arrive about August 20, and sometimes linger, if there is good feeding in grassy corn-fields, until the first of October. When the birds first come, they are rather thin and shy, and their only note is a metallic monotonous "pink pank." But as the season progresses they become very fat and very tame, often sitting on the coffee-grass that lines the margins of the rice-field banks until the observer can almost catch them. The plumage of both sexes at the time is softly ocherous, with tints of brown and black on the back and wings.

To the rice-planter these "rice-birds" are a veritable plague, so much so that one of the regular expenses of the plantation is that occasioned by "bird-minding." There are various ways in which to combat these pests. One is by posting Negroes on platforms along the banks, from which eminences they bawl their long, hand-woven "wahwoo" lashes. The crack of these whips sounds like the report of a gun, and early in the season is rather effective in keeping the birds restless. But after a while they become used to the harmless din, and more strenuous methods have to be resorted to. On a heavy charge of coarse-grained powder a flattened buckshot is rammed tightly. When this shot leaves a musket, it sings above the feeding birds, and its sound is said to resemble the rush of the wings of a sharp-shinned hawk, a dread enemy of rice-birds. At any rate, it has a wonderful effect in making the feeding hosts rise and scatter far. But the only real way to keep birds from ruining a crop is to send Negro bird-hunters into the rice after them. The fields at this stage of growth are flooded, and the water is about two feet deep. It is stagnant, muddy, and infested with all manner of water-loving insects and reptiles. Yet the Negro hunter, slouching his battered cap over his eyes, will sink out of sight under the golden canopy of the rice, appearing next far out in the field, enveloped in smoke and shadowed by myriads of birds that he has roused from their banquet. In order to make a telling shot, the gunner is obliged to keep below the level of the rice; and the distance of the stalk is sometimes half a mile. Through tangled growths of saw-grass, over blind ditches and bog-holes, always up to his knees in water and always under the rice, the bird-minder creeps warily. Nor is his anxiety confined to a fear that he may flush the birds out of range; for in the water through which he crawls there lurk the deadly cottonmouth moccasin, the water-rattler, and even the alligator, though an alligator very seldom attacks man, unless he mistakes him for some defenseless and legitimate object of prey. When the Negro comes upon the birds, he makes sure of their

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exact location (which is not an easy matter because of the bewildering sound made by the chirring of thousands of bills on the rough rice hulls), levels his musket over the drooping heads of the grain, and utters a long, rolling whoop. As the feasters clear the level his musket roars out; and, if conditions be favorable, the gunner frequently picks up more than a hundred birds. Other hunters prefer to go into the field and wait until a great cloud of birds, disturbed, yet seeking a place to light, "balls" near enough to shoot.

But while the chief interest occasioned by this late summer visitor is rather expensive and rather unpleasant, there are at such a time observations possible which to the student of bird life are highly valuable. Undoubtedly the most impressive of these is the fact of the rice-bird's gluttony. He grows so corpulent that he grows unwary, he loses his grace of flight, his voice changes from a tenor to a lugubrious bass, and he is actually so fat that if when shot he falls on a hard rice-field bank he will literally burst open. Rice-birds roost in the marshes that border the rivers and in tall reeds that have taken possession of waste rice-lands. Even there they are pursued by hunters, who, blinding them with a lightwood torch, pick them off their perches. And, even though the birds are a nuisance to the South, for the sake of others who love them for their songs of the summer, laws should be passed forbidding the capture of birds at night.

The bobolinks pay the South another visit in the spring, when they are known as May-birds. At that time they feed on the rice that is being sown. The males are then in full summer plumage and in full song. They precede the females in migration by a week or more, and appear far more joyous than their soberer-hued helpmates. This spring visit to the South is very short, and the true bobolink as he is at this time is not so well known there as the rice-bird is in the late summer.

A drive through the Southern woods in winter is a source of great delight to the bird lover. The level roads, smooth as white sand can make them and fragrantly carpeted with pine-needles, lead from dewy swamps to airy ridges, and by tiny farms of Negroes and poor whites—farms that have been desperately wrested from the engulfing growth of the monstrous woods. In the native growths of pine and tupelo the birds most frequently met (and seldom found anywhere else) are the pine-warbler, the brown-headed nuthatch, and the downy woodpecker. Occasionally, swinging far through the tinted vistas of the purple forest, there will be seen the magnificent black pileated woodpecker, which, with his flaming scarlet cockade, looks at a distance much as the lost ivory-billed woodpecker must have looked before the encroachments of men drove him out of his native haunts. From the grassy road-side flickers bound up startlingly, hurtle to near-by trees, and there hang, with their heads peering over their shoulders. On passing through gallberry thickets or along watercourses with heavy undergrowth, jolly towhees, with their striking red and black plumage, will rustle in the dead leaves or startle one by their abrupt "fluff-fluff" rise out of the brush. Perched on a dry twig, they will eye the intruder amiably, though they sometimes seem to express a personal opinion in their baffling incredulous whistle. Or, again, from the depths of some shadowy thicket their clear call, comparable in resonance to that of the bob-white, will sound far through the woods, "Towhee! Towhee!" In sunny spaces along the road small flocks of doves will be seen, and frequently brown covies of quail will troop gracefully over the sandy driveway or will huddle together until one passes. Through the sunlit woods large flocks of bluebirds can be seen, warbling that delightful note that in the North heralds the spring. Meadow-larks, while usually found in grain and cotton fields, are often met with in the pine woods, where they find excellent cover in the tall yellow broom-sedge. Traveling together in small flocks, the Carolina chick-adee and the tufted titmouse are frequently seen, as are also goldfinches, brown creepers, ruby-crowned kinglets, and blue-gray gnatcatchers. If the observer be fortunate, it is quite likely that he may catch a glimpse of a blue-headed or a white-eyed vireo, an orange-crowned, a yellow-throated, or a palm warbler, or even a Southern yellowthroat or a golden-crowned thrush. Most of the members of the sparrow family winter in fields rather than in woods; and so, if the road

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leads through cultivated lands, one may see vesper sparrows, savannah sparrows (along ditch banks), chipping sparrows, white-throated sparrows, and, most welcome of all, song sparrows, that sing throughout the entire winter.

TWENTY YEARS IN HULL HOUSE

BY ELIZABETH WALLACE

IN the early days of the Consumers' League a woman from New England, eager and intelligent, went to Washington to consult Carroll D. Wright, Commissioner of Labor. After listening attentively to the plan and object of the organization as developed by his visitor, Mr. Wright commended it, but added, "Do you realize that you have entered upon a hundred years' job?" "We do," was the instant response, "and so we haven't an hour to lose."

It is exactly this intelligent, comprehensive view of the future, combined with a patience almost superhuman, that animates the group of workers portrayed by Miss Addams in her recent book.[1] The opening chapters of the autobiography reveal the child who was the mother of the woman. Miss Addams gave her supreme affection to her father, and he first drew her into the moral concerns of life and later afforded a clue there, "to which," she says, "I somewhat wistfully clung in the intricacy of its mazes." Many women will read the exquisite story of father and daughter with deep emotion, recalling girlhood days steadied, illuminated, and inspired by just this strong and perfect understanding. This wise father listened quietly to the "cheap arguments" of the young girl upon many subjects that appealed to her ardent youthfulness. For instance, when she tried to prove him wrong for mourning the death of Joseph Mazzini "because he was not an American," she gained from her father's attitude a sense of the genuine relationship that exists between men who share large hopes and like desires, even though they differ in nationality language, and creed. She was ashamed of her meager patriotism, proud of her father, and took to her heart Mrs. Browning's lines in which she describes a like relationship.

"He wrapt me in his large
Man's doublet, careless did it fit or no."

The understanding between the grave man of few words and the ardent little girl was perfect. She was not five years old when Lincoln died, and, for the first time, she knew that grown people wept, for she found her father in tears. In a chapter upon the influence of Lincoln the depths of patriotism are stirred, and we thrill with a sense of comradeship with our devoted fathers and mothers who lived through the Civil War and gave of their best to the saving of the Union. Mr. Lincoln wrote several letters to Mr. Addams (kept with sacred care by the recipient), whom he addressed as "My dear Double-D'ed Addams." He consulted him as to certain measures then before the Illinois Legislature, of which Mr. Addams was long an influential member. Through her father's love for the martyred President the young girl stored up in her heart a lifelong devotion to that honored name, which came to be, as she says, "an invigorating and clarifying power." "Abraham Lincoln cleared the title to our democracy," and proved that democratic government, with all its shortcomings, "still remains the most valuable contribution America has made to the moral life of the world."

A telling chapter is given to what Miss Addams calls, in Tolstoy's phrase, "The Snare of Preparation." It should be read by every young man or woman aiming to be useful in this active world, yet often "smothered and sickened with advantages" and unfortunately free from happy industry or from "extenuating obstacles."

[1] Twenty Years in Hull House. By Jane Addams. The Macmillan Company, New York. $2.50.

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Aroused from a period of absorption and theorizing, Miss Addams and her friend Miss Starr began the search for a suitable place in Chicago where they might try the settlement experiment, not yet fully outlined in their own thought.

How they found Hull House and how the work grew under their willing hands has often been told, but never without effect. Their purpose was afterward stated in these words: "To provide a center for a higher civic and social life; to institute and maintain educational and philanthropic enterprises and to investigate and improve the conditions in the industrial districts of Chicago." In view of this clear statement, the criticisms that have been made upon the work done, because it was not something quite different, are hardly to be regarded as reasonable.

Perhaps the strongest impression left on the mind after reading this book is the remarkable poise of Miss Addams's character. She held herself open to suggestions, made tentative plans, listened to advice from many sources, yet kept firm hold upon essential principles. In a chapter on "Economic Discussion" there are several keen bits of analysis regarding the attitude of those who espoused the different activities of so-called social science. They had to be put into partisan groups because their feelings were apt to be hurt when their especial cause did not receive due recognition. All this inner friction Miss Addams seems to have escaped, though of outward tangles and insoluble problems her days were full. As is well known, she took an active and influential part in labor legislation in Illinois, keeping in close touch with every detail of the puzzling industrial problems. Her School Board experiences and her efforts for civic co-operation in Chicago revealed to her clear vision much of the under side of party politics. The book is packed full of information, suggestion, encouragement, and most complete comprehension of the overwhelming difficulties in the path of the reformer. Too many of us are acquainted with the sort of persons Miss Addams describes as putting forth thorns in their eagerness to bear grapes, pursuing ends which they consider of overwhelming importance and becoming thin and impoverished in spirit and temper, developing "a dark mistaken eagerness alternating with fatigue, which supersedes 'the great and gracious ways' so much more congruous with worthy aims." Such are the antipodes of Miss Addams. For such will this book be a guide-post to a better road. For others, not yet impressed by the tremendous need and by their own great privileges, the book will prove an inspiration, a call to happy, patient, intelligent toil.

Miss Addams has recently given to large audiences the fruits of her experience in addresses before the meetings in connection with the Child Welfare Exhibit in New York.

THE NEW BOOKS

The author of "We of the Never Never Land," Mrs. Æneas Gunn, writes of a remote district of Australia. The book shows descriptive power of rather unusual ability, and is vivacious throughout. Sometimes, indeed, one wishes that the author would be a little less sprightly and a little more definite; that she would explain to the uninitiated reader some of the Australian terms used, and tell a little more in detail just what was done on this enormous stock-farm. "The Never Never Land," as we understand it, is the more remote part of the northern Australian country. It is reached by telegraph and by mail-riders "once in a while;" but the "stations," or ranches, are many miles apart, and the people in one place have to depend upon themselves for social pleasure as well as for actual needs. Mrs. Gunn evidently proved resourceful; and one sees that she was the spirit of cheerfulness which animated this little spot of English life set down in the midst of grinning natives, enormous stretches of wild country, and so remote from contact with the world at large that a woman could expect to get her household provisions and packages sent her from a distance only two or three times a year. Mrs. Gunn and her husband made the best of things, and really passed an enjoyable and even jolly life. The little pen sketches of their faithful but rough associates and of their native servants are decidedly amusing—in particular, the fat Chinese cook is so well presented that he is

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a more enjoyable character than most to be found in humorous novels. (The Macmillan Company, New York. $1.50.)

"Islam Lands" is a worthy successor to Mr. Shoemaker's books about Ireland, Scotland, France, Russia, Persia, India, Burma, the Philippines, New Zealand, and Tasmania. The present volume seems to us noteworthy chiefly because of two things. First, because of its information concerning the Sudanese. Mr. Shoemaker finds them superior to the Egyptians, and describes their progress as guided by the English, particularly at Gordon College and at the Wellcome Laboratory. The latter institution has not only carried on remarkable investigations into the causes of the numerous diseases found in tropical climates, but, as showing the changes brought about by the new régime, the chief Laboratory attendant —a man trusted to make blood fibers for microscopic examination—was once a fighting dervish in Kordofan! The Laboratory's work is broad enough even to be concerned with the construction of houses, and its report points out the importance to the white race of shade and the harmfulness to it of the excess of tropical sunlight—indeed, the main use of the pigment in the Negro skin is to keep out the light rays. The second particularly striking feature of the present volume, so it seems to us, is Mr. Shoemaker's description of Tunisia, especially of Carthage and Timgad (the ancient Thamagudi). The author even claims that the Timgad ruins are more magnificent and extensive than anything that Rome can show, the Coliseum excepted. Many illustrations add to the value of Mr. Shoemaker's book. (G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. $2.50.)

Will the white race continue to control the black, yellow, and brown races? We frequently hear that query from people who have lived in the Far East. One among them, an Englishman, still hiding his personality under the pseudonym of B. L. Putnam Weale, attempts to elucidate the question in his latest book, "The Conflict of Color." Unless the question is answered quickly and definitely, he says, there may be a revolution, world-wide in its extent. By his "Manchu and Muscovite," his "Reshaping of the Far East," his "Truce in the East," and his "Coming Struggle in Eastern Asia" this author has prepared us for the opinions he now expresses. His observations are interesting to all the colonial Powers. But they are chiefly so to Great Britain and the United States. With regard to the United States the volume contains some particularly pregnant hints and conclusions, we think. As might be anticipated, they have to do with our relations with China and Japan. Suppose China one day makes common cause with Japan. What will result? Eastern Asia, with a population of six hundred millions, will be controlled from Tokyo. But, what is of more moment, a closed sea might extend from Saghalien to Siam. For our "pernicious doctrine of Protection having given to all modern states a pseudo-scientific weapon, . . . it is not a very far cry from tariffs on goods to tariffs and restrictions on foreign shipping, on foreign merchants, on everything foreign." Such a policy, it is claimed, has already been begun by Japan in Formosa and Korea and South Manchuria. How shall we meet this policy? The author has two answers ready: Secure China's complete independence, and then make China ultimately stronger than Japan. If we Americans do not do this, he adds, we may expect to lose the Philippines, and that "in less than two decades." But we must not only build up China, we must restrain Japan. In this, as the author truly thinks, neither England nor Russia can do as much as America. For, as The Outlook has often said, no nation enjoys the liberty of action conferred on us by our geographical situation, detaching us as it does from European rivalries. It is certainly no wonder that we have come to be known as the only truly disinterested party in foreign politics. Hence we can count, not only upon the public opinion of other countries, but actually, thinks our author, on the active support of a majority of European Powers, in case of need; and even more emphatically upon the support of the great English-speaking democracies—Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa—which, the author well says, though English in political organization, are decidedly American in sentiment. (The Macmillan Company, New York. $2.)

Napoleon the Great "antithetically mixt" is a riddle which students of human nature are never weary of studying. Every year brings some new addition to the already enormous library of Napoleonic literature. "Napoleon in His Own Defence," edited by Clement Shorter (Cassell & Co., New York, $4), is a reprint of the "Las Cases Letters" and a reply by Theodore Hook. The Las Cases "Letters from the Cape," the editor declares, were "undoubtedly by Napoleon." When letters are dictated to a secretary by so rapid a thinker as Napoleon, it is always a little hazardous to determine how much the language is that of the dictator and how much that of the secretary. "Letters from the Cape" (of Good Hope), to which point Las Cases had been sent from St. Helena, where he had previously been Napoleon's companion, are so entitled because sent from the Cape to Lady Clavering in England, in defense of Napoleon from an anti-Napoleonic publication by a Mr. Warden. The reprinted pamphlet by Theodore Hook, the popular but unscrupulous English author and practical joker, is valuable rather as a resurrected curiosity than as a historical document. The man who characterized the greatest commander of his age, if not of the ages, by the phrase, "a more ungraceful, thick-legged, fat little fellow never existed on the face of the earth," is not to be taken seriously, even if we were not told by Mr.

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Shorter that when this pamphlet was written Mr. Hook was under official charges of public peculation and had very good reason for attempting to curry favor with the Government by defending it from charges of mistreatment of a fallen foe. "The Corsican: A Diary of Napoleon's Life in His Own Words" (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, $1.75), though not, strictly speaking, a diary, is both interesting and valuable. "The matter, with the exception of the few bracketed passages, is derived entirely from Napoleon's own words written and spoken." It is a remarkable compilation, and to the student of Napoleon, and also to the student of human nature, is of unique interest. That interest is not abated by the fact that nothing that Napoleon ever said or wrote can be taken at its face value, without inquiry. For he was always a *poseur*. He posed before Europe, before his people, before his army, before his wife, before his valet, and, when there was no one else present, before his looking-glass. Mr. Gladstone declared, Mr. Shorter tells us, that Napoleon was the greatest man, both as a soldier and an administrator, that the world has ever seen. With that judgment we agree. But he was also perhaps the vainest and the most self-conceited man the world has ever thought worth its study. He never forgot himself. One of his companions in his exile, M. Gounard, the author of "The Exile of St. Helena," has said of him that "on his lonely rock he had not lost the art of managing men," that "his work was meted out exactly to suit the French mind, the requirements of the time, the intelligence and the sentiments of the people." He always wrote and spoke for effect, and one can never tell when he was sincere, or whether, indeed, he was ever absolutely himself. Even when he is quite frank in his self-revelation one is quite sure that he is so for a purpose. For example: "Campo Formio. Count Cobenzl and I met for our concluding session in a room where, according to Austrian custom, a dais had been installed with a chair of state representing that of the Austrian Emperor. On entering I asked what this meant, and (on being told) I said to the Austrian Ministers: 'Come, before we begin you had better have that chair taken away, because I have never yet seen a chair set higher than others without immediately wanting to get into it.'" That was evidently said for a purpose, but it is nevertheless a real self-revelation, and explains the alliance of all Europe against him, and his ultimate downfall. Again, in a single sentence he interprets the failure of the French Revolution: "We have not yet defined what we mean by the executive, legislative, and judicial powers." French failure to do this, American success in doing this, marks the radical difference between the French and the American revolutions. On the other hand, no one can take seriously the statement to the Archduke Charles, "If the overture I have the honor of making can save the life of one single individual, I shall be more proud of the civic crown I shall earn than of the sad glory that comes of military success;" nor can we reconcile his complimentary letter to the President of the National Institute, "The real conquests, those that leave no regrets behind, are those made over ignorance," with the sentiment attributed to him by history when he declined to receive Pestalozzi, "I have no time for A B C." This necessity of reading between the lines and endeavoring to see the real man behind his mask of words adds fascination to this Diary.

"Christianity and the Modern Mind," by Dr. Samuel McComb, author of "Religion and Medicine" (Dodd, Mead & Co., New York, $1.50), and "Missions and Modern Thought," by Professor William Owen Carver, of the Southern Baptist Theological Seminary (The Macmillan Company, New York, $1.50), are wholly independent and yet complementary to each other. The concluding chapter of the former introduces the theme of the latter. Each complete in itself, they reinforce each other, and constitute in combination a more massive argument than that of either separately. Dr. McComb's volume vindicates the claim of Christianity to leadership of the modern mind that often antagonizes it. His reasoning with objectors covers all the moot points of current difficulty, and draws effectively on the helpful suggestions supplied by recent scientific research, especially in psychology. He does well in insisting that Christianity, in fidelity to its essential spirit, has yet to complete the demonstration of its claim to allegiance by effectively coping with the sorest evils of the world, its social inhumanities, most apparent in the grim facts of poverty and crime. On its fidelity to the altruistic missionary spirit, which impels it to impart its best to mankind, the future of Christianity in its claim to leadership of the world is staked. From this view-point Professor Carver's volume proceeds to show that Christian missions, as now conceived and conducted with the encouragement and the correction of a century's experience, are meeting the demands of the best thought of our time. His argument draws especially upon the facts and lessons of history in general, and of the history of Christianity and of Christian missions in particular. Through its foreign mission work, says Professor Carver, "Christianity has come very much better to understand itself." "The function of Christian missions is to put a higher type of man in the midst of lower types." One can agree with him that "we find our missions saving our theology at home," if not to the extreme extent of his claim. Both writers are constructive and positive, practical rather than critical, and find the convincing evidences of Christianity in what it can do. Both insist on a deep passion for humanity and human brotherhood as the essential note of a world-winning religion. Both utter an assured expectation of the new Christian era that is to realize this.

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LETTERS TO THE OUTLOOK

THE FORTIFICATION OF THE ISTHMIAN CANAL

The question of fortifying the Isthmian Canal is now before us and is likely to have a strong bearing upon international affairs. If we feel that it is necessary to fortify this Canal in order to protect ourselves from encroachment, it will show to the whole world a distrust of others that they do not show towards us. Can we, one of the most powerful nations on the globe, afford to put ourselves in such a position? I do not deprecate so much the fifteen, or fifty, million dollars that will be worse than wasted in such fortifications, or the expense of keeping them up, as showing in such a pronounced way our distrust of other nations. Would it not be well at this time to consider carefully the necessity for any fortification of the Canal, to consider the security of its position three to five thousand miles away from any force that could seriously menace it, to consider the peaceful relations existing between ourselves and others, and the very strong desire of all nations to maintain these relations—the necessity, in fact, for retaining them for the self-interest of all; and, in addition to this situation, to consider our natural advantages and power; to consider also the general sentiment of the world in favor of unfortified highways of commerce, and the almost certain establishment at The Hague of a judicial court for settling the difficulties that may arise between the nations, which will practically remove the dangers of collision between them? Now, what would be the effect of our fortifying this Isthmian Canal? Would it interfere with the growing good will and trust between the nations? Suppose that this good will should result in the near future in the Governments of the world establishing a small international army and navy that could safeguard the interests of all, what would be the value of the money spent on this Canal in comparison with the great saving that would result to us in such an establishment? Are not the risks of fortifying this Canal greater to us and to the other nations than the risk of its destruction?

Boston, Massachusetts. EDWIN GINN.

[The Outlook has already pointed out that the question of fortifying the Canal is entirely different from that of neutralizing the Canal. The Outlook believes, not only that the United States has the right, under its treaties and under international law, to fortify the Canal, but that its plain duty is to fortify the Canal. The history of this question was discussed at some length in an editorial in The Outlook of October 1 last. We repeat the conclusion reached: "The Canal Zone is United States territory. The Canal itself is, to all intents, a part of the coast line of the United States. We may well agree that all nations may use it for peaceful transit on equal terms; but we have no right to agree that a nation at war with us may use it in attacking us; and, if such an agreement were made, no Administration could or would keep the agreement. . . . Nor has the Nation any right, by a policy of fatuous optimism, to prohibit itself from preventing the use of the Canal by a foreign Power, if the attempt should ever be made so to use it with hostile intent."—THE EDITORS.]

THE PASSION PLAY

[The Outlook, believing that many readers would be interested in the points suggested by Mr. Reid's letter below, asked Professor Sloane for a reply, which is appended.—THE EDITORS.]

I have been reading with much interest the article on "The Passion Play," by William M. Sloane, which appeared in the number for December 31. In some important particulars this article differs in its statement of fact from the little book on "Oberammergau and Its Passion Play," prepared by Monsignor Joseph Schroeder, chief priest of the little town. In regard to the usual statement that this play is given by peasants, the author of this little book says: "There is no greater mistake than to think the inhabitants of Oberammergau are mere peasants and do not go beyond the narrow view of country folk in general. Certainly they were peasants once upon a time, but they are so no longer, though there may be some who still regard them as such. Their way of living and the many years' intercourse with strangers have brought them into close contact with townspeople, though themselves dwelling in a small village in the heart of the mountains. The lifelong sedentary occupation of wood-carving, combined with the air of small, low, and consequently musty rooms, has not specially contributed to the physical development of the inhabitants. The erect and proud bearing of other Bavarian highlanders will be found among the men just as seldom as among the women that healthy freshness which characterizes their sisters elsewhere."

Mr. Sloane says that the total number engaged in the play as actors, managers, ushers, musicians, etc., is "about six hundred, all told," but the priest of the town says that the number so engaged is one thousand, and for the larger scenes more than five hundred persons appear upon the stage at a time. Mr. Sloane says that there are fifteen hundred beds in the little town to assign to visitors. The priest says that there are four thousand for visitors (*i. e.*, accommodations which insure tickets for the performance). Mr. Sloane says that the middle tier of seats at the theater only are numbered, reserved, and high-priced. As a matter of fact, all the seats at the theater are numbered and reserved, and have been so since the 1890 performance, according to the same high authority whom I have been quoting, and there is a scale of five prices (six, including the royal boxes when they are available), from

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two marks to ten marks. The price is printed plainly on each ticket, and the speculator is almost absolutely eliminated. The ten-mark ticket is hardly exorbitant from an American point of view, and certainly compared most favorably with the charges for grand opera at Munich during the festival last summer. Mr. Sloane says that there were two regular performances weekly from June to September, but, according to the official announcements, the regular performances began in May and were given every Sunday, with only occasional performances on Wednesday—in all, thirty regular performances in twenty-one weeks, which is hardly twice a week.

One other discrepancy between Mr. Sloane and the parish priest of Oberammergau may be of interest. Mr. Sloane says that Dedler's music is for the most part low-pitched throughout, but Monsignor Schroeder says that "the music has been set too high on the whole, and therefore gradually jars on the ears." Most of those who attended the play last summer will agree with the prelate's judgment, and will sympathize with his further statement that the music is difficult of performance and taxes the powers of those who render it, especially toward the end of the eight hours of the play.

There is such a high finish to the play as it is given to-day, so many of the old objectionable features have been eliminated, so much recourse is had to the modern mechanism of the stage, that the impression upon the spectator is hardly that of a mediæval survival; but one readily agrees with Mr. Sloane that to narrate the features of scenes rare and unique must be with mingled feelings and inadequate word.

(Rev.) JOHN REID.

Franklin, Massachusetts.

The editors of The Outlook have forwarded your letter of the 19th to me, and I hasten to thank you for the careful attention you have given to my article on Oberammergau. That paper is based on my own impressions received during two fairly long visits in the Bavarian Alps, on information gathered in Oberammergau by myself and a trusted friend, and on the report of the authorities for the season just closed as published in the newspapers. It stands, I think, as printed, before The Outlook readers in just this light, with no pretension to critical accuracy—a sort of impressionist view of a casual visitor. Nevertheless, I believe my statements to be accurate; there is wide room for difference between the native and the visitor in matters of definition and statement. Monsignor Schroeder would naturally have one view of the *Bauer* in his parish, and intelligent visitors another; that there are well-bred dwellers in Oberammergau no one would deny; that the natives are "peasants" in the accurate sense of that word is equally certain. As to the numbers engaged, mine refer to those regularly attached to the organization of the play, and salaried from the receipts; that others are engaged for this or that temporary service or for several performances may be true. Several persons have counted the largest number visible on the stage at one time in the most thronged pictures, and their count so substantially agreed with mine that I adopted it; a census might, of course, reveal a number that were not easily seen. As to the number of performances given, thirty were advertised for the season of 1911; eighteen—no, nineteen (132 days)—weeks, from May 16 to September 25. During the three weeks I was in Bavaria last year the advertised Sunday and Wednesday performances were, to the best of my belief, repeated every Monday and Thursday—I went on a Monday. Here are thirty-six performances, and the report (which unfortunately I did not keep), as my memory serves, showed more. As to the music, not being expert, I think I used the wrong designation—"low-pitched" for soft or soft-pitched, if this last be not too barbarous. Furthermore, there are beds and beds: I penetrated into the lodging-places provided for other "peasants" who walked many, many miles, and after a talk with a very intelligent Oberammergauer fixed the number for tourists at a maximum of 1,500; that 2,500 more of a certain sort could sleep and feed in the village is very probable—such as are immune to crowding and smells. The tourist agencies, I think, advertised about my number. On the Monday of my attendance the ushers gave themselves no trouble except about the middle tiers of seats, and I fell into the mistake you point out. No doubt the other seats had numbers on them.

As to whether the Passion Play is a historic survival or a finished modern production, I cannot quite accept the view of Monsignor Schroeder. To me, as my paper indicates, it has no value or interest except as a "mystery" play. It is neither a modern drama, a morality, nor a miracle play. Many men have many minds. I stated mine as modestly as I could.

About the charges there are also two opinions: It was a Bavarian friend of the upper class who stigmatized the cost of lodging and seats as "*die reine Geldprellereir*," and my impression is strong that other unbiased Bavarians were of the same mind. What you refer to in connection with the performances in the Prince Regent Theater certainly is *Geldprellereir*; of that there can be no doubt. Extortion is a vice easily acquired. WILLIAM M. SLOANE.

New York City.

THE INITIATIVE AND REFERENDUM IN SWITZERLAND

Having read with great benefit Mr. Roosevelt's recent article, I am moved to write you a few lines on the initiative and referendum as they work in Switzerland. First, as responsibility is, by these so-called improvements, taken away from the elected legislators, the character and ability of the legislative bodies are correspondingly lowered;

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and, second, the measures placed before the people for their suffrage are framed in more or less complicated manner, so that often undesirable legislation is effected through the voters' attempt to secure the desirable. The proposition very often will contain a bait so desired by the people that they vote "yes" to the whole, and there is no redress except to go through the entire thing again, with perhaps no better result. For instance, to secure the nucleus of the standing army (up to then unconstitutional in Switzerland) the proposition had, as a part of it, the bait of decreased field service in the Reserves for three years. The measure passed, of course, but even then only by a slight majority. The proposition is very seldom a simple one, requiring a yes or no vote, but is put in such a way as to invite the greater evil to secure the smaller good.

Therefore I thoroughly believe in the election of representatives on whose shoulders rest, and weigh heavily, the responsibility of passing the most desirable laws, and they to stand or fall on their records, we, the common people, thus getting the full benefit of the ablest minds among us.

J. W. KELLEY.

Framingham Center, Massachusetts.

[The use of the initiative and referendum is not at all inconsistent, if properly guarded, with a strong representative system. It should, as Mr. Roosevelt pointed out, be employed only in cases of emergency where the representative legislature fails to do its manifest duty. While the principle is borrowed from Switzerland, all the Swiss details do not have to be adopted. In fact, one advantage of the example of Switzerland is that it affords us the best possible opportunity of avoiding her errors or failures in applying the principle to our own conditions and needs.—THE EDITORS.]

EAGER TO READ

Two years ago, at the Lake Mohonk Conference, I made an appeal to the delegates present for contributions of books, that a system of public school libraries might be established in the island of Porto Rico.

At that time there was but one school library in the island, and not more than half a dozen public libraries of any sort. There were *barrios* and rural villages with scarcely a book to be found except the text-books of the pupils in the public schools; and these, being the property of the Government, could only be used by the children during their school life. As a result of the scarcity of books, the twenty thousand or more children who left the public schools each year with no more than a fair reading knowledge found themselves with nothing to read, with no means of practicing, and so retaining, their ability to read. In fact, their "little learning" bade fair to become a useless, if not a dangerous, thing.

The response to my appeals exceeded my most sanguine expectations. Books came from all sections—through the kindness of the Red "D" and the New York and Porto Rico Steamship Company, transported free from New York when addressed to me and marked "Donation to School Libraries." One publishing house sent nearly five thousand volumes, and cases containing one hundred or more were not uncommon. Some of the books thus received were not wholly appropriate for children—volumes of history, biography, travel, or bound volumes of the illustrated magazines are particularly desirable—though nearly all have found a place.

As a result of the movement no less than 233 school libraries, containing 34,643 volumes, have been established in Porto Rico, and are now in active operation. One cannot appreciate what this means to the people without visiting the island. In practically all the cities and towns such a library is maintained, and in nearly one-fourth of the little *barrios*, or hamlets. These libraries vary greatly in their character and pretentiousness. In no instance is an entire building devoted to library purposes, but in a number of towns a sizable room, either in the *alcaldia* or in some school building, is set aside for such use. But by far the vast majority of school libraries are in the school-room, presided over by the teacher. Through the generosity of a friend I was enabled to purchase at an army auction nearly three hundred discarded soldiers' kits—strong iron-bound boxes of a suitable size, each with lock—and these are the book-cases. Books may be drawn by the pupils—and ex-pupils—usually at the close of the session, and it is an inspiration to see the little folks cluster about the teacher with the books they have selected, to have them properly charged. In some instances the school-room is open in the evening, with the teacher in attendance as librarian. Not long since I found myself in one of the smaller interior towns of the island in the evening, and stopped at the school-house to visit the night school. Finding two rooms of the building lighted and both crowded with pupils—in some instances two in a seat—I expressed surprise that the attendance should be so large. In reply the principal informed me that one of the rooms was open as the school library, and that those I saw were its patrons. I counted seventy-two, among them many adults. We need have no fear for the future of Porto Rico when such things can be found.

But there are nearly twelve hundred thousand people in the island, and, with all that has been done, there are more than seven hundred school buildings without school libraries. This means that one-half of the population is not in touch with a library. And every one wants to be. The school boards and public-spirited persons throughout the island are behind the library movement, and are working hard for it, for they see what it means.

But I am renewing my appeal to the

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people of the United States. Send us some more books. Each will be stamped with the name of the donor. Or, if you prefer, twenty-five dollars will fill one of our boxes with a carefully selected list of books, bought at publishers' prices. The incidental expenses, too, of local transportation, etc., have to be met by contributions, as I have no special appropriation for library purposes. Porto Rico is generous to her schools, spending $1,200,000 annually for their support, and I have not cared to ask such a special appropriation. I shall be glad to answer any questions.

E. G. DEXTER,
Commissioner of Education.

San Juan, Porto Rico.

THE GOVERNMENT CLERK

Washington is going through its periodical discussion of the Government clerk. Is he underpaid, adequately paid, or overpaid? Should he have a retirement pension, paid by the Government or by himself? All sorts of conceivable and some inconceivable arguments on every side of these questions are advanced, by Washington business men who thrive on the trade of these clerks, editors who want to sell their papers, Congressmen who want a reputation as far-seeing, economical, shrewd legislators. Each will have his say, and in all probability the whole matter will quietly drop out of sight, as it has already done many times. In fact, the problem is not as simple as it appears to many. Of the whole force of clerks in the Government employ, a very small percentage, judged by the work they do, are overpaid; a larger proportion, perhaps half, are adequately paid; and the remainder are underpaid. The difficulty arises in giving adequate salaries to those who earn them. Under civil service rules clerks are divided into classes, each class receiving a certain salary. Then Congress limits the number of clerks in any one department who may be included in the higher classes. Those classes are always full, and there is practically no chance for a clerk, whatever his ability, to get promoted except as somebody in one of those classes drops out or resigns or is demoted. Furthermore, the protection of civil service, of which so much is made, is absolutely worthless for these higher classes. It makes it difficult for their superiors to dismiss them, but does not hinder in the slightest their demotion. The result is that practically all clerks above the $1,000 or $1,200 class are at the mercy of their immediate chief of division or the bureau chief, while he is bound to consult the wishes —sometimes the whims—of the head of the department, and he again is subject to pressure from some Senator or Representative in Congress. In the last analysis, it is this political interference which is the most serious disturbing element. If any method can be devised of eliminating that, of removing the hard and fast lines between the classes, so that one man's advance shall not necessarily depend upon another man's loss, it will do much to remove the present unsatisfactory condition. Then it will be possible for a man with a family to live with reasonable comfort within the limits of the classified service. To-day that is impossible except in some of the more highly paid bureaus where expert work is essential, and where the salaries simply must be paid or the work cannot be done.

D. U. L.

Washington, D. C.

TO CHEER BABUSHKA'S EXILE

Wishing to know whether her friends might send literature to Madame Catherine Breshkovsky, and, if so, how to address it, I wrote to Mr. Khrouleff, with whom I have personal acquaintance, asking him these questions. He replied with promptness. I hope many will send her books and magazines and picture postal cards. The books must have no writing in them, nor may they refer to political subjects. She loves books of travel and serious novels if they end well. She specially likes illustrated books and magazines. Care must be taken to obey the restrictions imposed by the Russian Government or this privilege might be withdrawn. Mr. Khrouleff says:

> In reply to your request concerning your sending books to Katharine Breshkowsky, I hasten to inform you that all our exiled enjoy the rights of free citizens in respect to correspondence, and in consequence may receive any amount of books that are not excluded by competent authorities from the usage. With regard to that circumstance, nothing can prevent you from sending as many volumes as you like to Katharine Breshkowsky, and in that case I should advise you to address your postage in the name of the Governor of Yenesei, from whom it will depend to forward it to the present address of the mentioned exiled.
>
> Hoping that this letter will find you quite well, I am Yours sincerely,
>
> (Signed) E. KHROULEFF,
> Chief of the General Prison Administration in Russia.

ISABEL C. BARROWS.

THE SEVENTEEN-YEAR LOCUST

In The Outlook for December 31 Mr. Jacob Riis tells us how it might be of advantage to this country to introduce from Denmark a bird called the starling, as it might help to destroy the seventeen-year locust that is expected this year.

Mr. Riis does not seem to know that the so-called seventeen-year locust is not a locust at all, but a cicada, an insect not in the slightest degree related to the family of locusts, and not in any way injurious to vegetation of any kind.

In fact, after its seventeen years of subterranean abode there is no evidence that it takes any food when it reaches the surface of the earth and puts on its wings; indeed, the structure of its mouth parts is such that it can only suck the juices of plants through a minute tube not much larger than that possessed by a mosquito or horsefly, so there is no cause for alarm about any injury to vegetation by the prevalence of the seventeen-year locust.

J. D. HYATT.

New Rochelle, New York.

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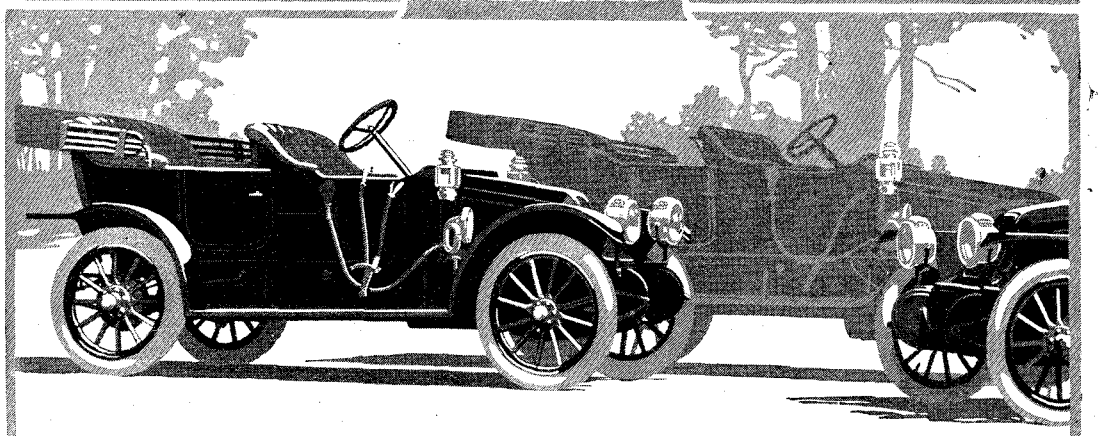
Franklin



The new sloping hood, blending perfectly with the body lines, makes the Franklin above all others "The Car Beautiful".

The riding ease of the Franklin comes from full-elliptic springs and a chassis frame of laminated wood which take up and absorb road shocks.

The wonderful success of the Franklin air-cooled motor despite world-wide competition leads many people to predict that all automobile manufacturers will adopt air cooling.

In the hottest or coldest climate, in tropical countries, on the hot plains and in mountain climbing, where water-cooled cars overheat, Franklin cars cool perfectly.

Four hundred and eighty-five miles in 16 hours, 16½ minutes in the Los Angeles-Phoenix desert race; 134.6 miles at a speed of 61.8 miles per hour in the Santa Monica road race; 68 miles in 60 minutes in the Los Angeles Motordrome hour race, are records made by a 1911 thirty-eight-horse-power Franklin in November.

Besides saving in weight and complication Franklin air cooling removes all cause for worry, as there is not anything about the cooling to get out of order, freeze, overheat or break down.

A Franklin saves two thirds of the usual tire expense and at the same time goes faster and farther in a day than other cars.

The secret of Franklin tire service is large tires on a light-weight, easy-riding automobile.

The tires last two to four times longer than those on other cars.

You can buy a Franklin of the size and power best suited to your requirements. There are two six-cylinder cars, Model H, 48 H. P., seven-passenger, or the "little six" (Model M) five-passenger car. Either can be had with four-passenger torpedo-phaeton bodies.

Model M and Model G are four-cylinder touring cars, 25 and 18 H. P. respectively. The most interesting, high character runabout ever put on any market is the new G.

Limousines and landaulets are made in both four- and six-cylinder models.

Our special light speed car is unquestionably the king of the road.

The universal favor accorded Franklin design is a tribute to be highly prized.

FRANKLIN AUTOMOBILE COMPANY Syracuse N Y

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Here is one modern necessity steadily decreasing in price in the face of a general rise in the cost of living. Electric light is now cheaper because

GE Mazda Lamps

with their strong metal threads radiate more light than can be gotten from electricity by the older types of incandescent bulbs.

They triple the amount of light for every dollar's worth of current.

Every room in your house can be better lighted with "bottled sunlight"—*some* of your rooms absolutely need General Electric Mazda Lamps. Begin with rooms you want brightest—compare the light—compare the cost and then decide for yourself.

Electric light companies and dealers have complete stocks of General Electric Mazda Lamps. Ask them to help select the sizes best suited to your needs.

Meanwhile write us for an attractive 20-page illustrated booklet giving lighting plans, costs, sizes and kinds of lamps and fixtures in addition to valuable information about modern electric lighting. Ask for "The New Era in Lighting."

His Only Rival — G-E MAZDA LAMP

General Electric Company

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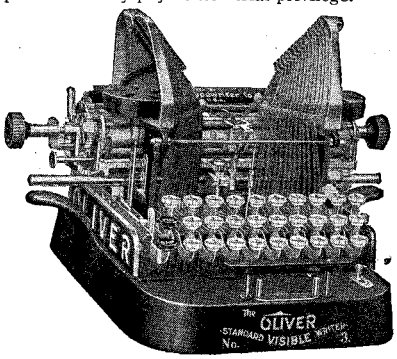
2816

A Typewriter Opportunity

Act Now and get a Standard Visible Writer at an immense price saving—a genuine Model 3 Oliver.
Low price—monthly payments—trial privilege.



DESCRIPTION

VISIBLE WRITING—A necessity now.
UNIVERSAL KEYBOARD—You would waste time learning any other. The Oliver has 84 characters.
CLEAR, SHARP WORK—The quality of the typewriting has a marked effect upon the success of the letter.
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CARBON COPIES—An excellent manifolder. Twenty copies if you like. Cuts perfect stencil.
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SIMPLICITY—Not lumbered with fads. Less than one-third as many parts as other machines. No wear-out to it.
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GUARANTEED—This machine is in perfect condition and is guaranteed against any defect in materials and workmanship.
EASY TO OWN—You can have one of these splendid typewriters for your own. Merely a few cents a day—$5.00 after you have tried the machine, and then $5.00 a month for nine months—only $50.00 in all—this is just half of the regular price and there is no interest to pay on the installments. You use the machine while paying for it. Think of it! the best typewriter that money can buy for only 17 cents a day for a few months.
ORDER IT ON TRIAL—You are welcome to use it for five days without paying any deposit, or obligating yourself in any way; no salesman or agent will call upon you, and you will be the sole judge.

All you have to do is to send your shipping instructions on the attached coupon blank. If you are not established in business just name a couple of references. All we want to know is that you are responsible.

A pencil will do to fill out the coupon. Mail it to-day.

TYPEWRITERS DISTRIBUTING SYNDICATE
842-57 State Street, Chicago

Trial Order Coupon

TYPEWRITERS DISTRIBUTING SYNDICATE
842-57 State Street, Chicago

Gentlemen:—Ship me an Oliver Typewriter, Model No. 3, on approval, F. O. B. Chicago.

If entirely satisfactory, I agree to remit $5.00 within five days from date I receive machine, and $5.00 each month thereafter for nine months, until the full price of $50 is paid. Otherwise I will return the typewriter to you at your expense. It is understood that the title will remain in you until the purchase price is paid in full.

Name_____

Address_____

_____

References:_____

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"Want" advertisements, under the various headings, "Board and Rooms," "Help Wanted," etc., ten cents for each word or initial, **including the address, for each insertion.** The first word of each advertisement is set in capital letters without additional charge. Other words may be set in capitals, if desired, at double rates. If answers are to be addressed in care of The Outlook, **twenty-five cents** is charged for the box number named in the advertisement. Replies will be forwarded by us to the advertiser and bill for postage rendered. Special headings appropriate to the department may be arranged for on application.

Orders and copy for Classified Advertisements must be received with remittance ten days before the Saturday on which it is intended the advertisement shall first appear. Address Advertising Department, The Outlook, 287 Fourth Ave., New York City.

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EUROPE in 1911

A series of delightful Raymond & Whitcomb Tours in Europe that take you where you want to go in comfort and luxury, under experienced American management, without a crowd and without trouble, or a single unnecessary expense.

Mediterranean Leaves New York Mar. 8. Eighty-two days in **Europe,** visiting **Italy,** the **Alps, Germany, Holland, Paris,** and **London.** Other Mediterranean Tours Apr 8, May 10, June 10.

Grand Tour Leaves New York May 27. One hundred and nineteen days in **Europe,** including **British Isles, France, Netherlands, Central Europe,** the **Alps** and **Italy.**

Land of the Midnight Sun

Leaves New York June 17. One hundred days in **Europe,** visiting the **North Cape** for a view of the **Midnight Sun,** the **Fjords of Norway, Scandinavia, Central Europe,** the **Alps, Italy, French Riviera** and **Paris.**

Also to California, Mexico, Florida, West Indies and Bermuda Itineraries ready

Write today for booklet you want.

Raymond & Whitcomb Co.

306 Washington St., Boston 225 Fifth Ave., N. Y.
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The Pilgrim Tours

Twenty Trips to Europe

Moderate Cost. Best Management. Comfortable Travel

Especially attractive trips Mar. 18, April 8, 29, and later to

Italy and the Riviera

Coronation
Norway and the Midnight Sun
British Isles

AND ALL EUROPEAN RESORTS

Booklets ready from

The Pilgrim Tours

Old South Church Building, Boston

Raymond & Whitcomb Co., Agents

New York, Philadelphia, Detroit

University Travel

THE NILE AND PALESTINE
Sail February 22d, S. S. Cedric. Leaders: Prof. H. G. Winter, Mr. Lawrence S. Moore.

MOROCCO, SICILY, GREECE
Sail March 8th, S. S. Celtic. Leaders: Dr. H. H. Powers, Prof. H. G. Winter.

GREECE, DALMATIA, ITALY
Sail April 8th, S. S. Canopic. Leaders: Dr. H. F. Willard, Dr. C. L. Babcock.

Our Own Yacht Athena in Mediterranean

Send for illustrated announcement.

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MARCH 18 Popular 70-day tour **$525** Select limited party
Many summer tours. Party organizers wanted.
AMERICAN TRAVEL CLUB, WILMINGTON, DEL.

EUROPE If going abroad this summer consult our Booklet and testimonials and you will wish to join one of our Ideal Coaching Tours. CHAS. W. JACOBS, Mgr., Rock Valley, Iowa.

See EUROPE in comfort. Small parties, experienced conductors. Sail June 24th and July 1st. Inclusive prices $350 to $600. Fourth season. THE LOWLE TOURS, 27 School St., Boston, Mass. Room 29.

THE ONE COUNTRY TOURS
$250 $250
Where a race has struggled for a millennium, will you not tarry for a brief summer?

Your Choice of { **The British Isles** / **Germany** / **Switzerland**

A new plan of leisurely, dignified, organized travel. Send for announcement.
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Europe and the Orient 16th year. Four high grade tours, $475 to $750. Dr. M. M. KUGLER, 7 E. 4th St., Cincinnati, O.

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EUROPE Select 9,000-mile summer tours. Personal escort; **$260**
wide choice of routes; eleven years' experience; highest testimonials. Apply at once.
THE TEMPLE TOURS, 8 Beacon St., Boston, Mass.

Grinnell Tours to Europe
For prospectus address Professor Charles N. Smiley, Grinnell College, Grinnell, Iowa.

The Search Unsurpassable Tours
The Best of All Europe in the Best Way for the Best People. Scholarly leadership, cultural purposes, delightful company. Coronation and general party starts June 3 and 10; teachers and musicians, June 14 and 21; Ideal Tour de Luxe, August 5. Apply immediately. Give references and state purpose.
The Search Annual Tours, Cincinnati, Sta. R.

Europe Small private party of ladies, sailing June 22. Comprehensive tour. Experienced chaperon. 81 days; absolutely inclusive charges, $700. 85, Outlook.

DUNNING TOURS

The Best of Europe in the Best Way.

BEACON TOURS
Moderate in Price.

PILGRIMAGES
For Music Lovers, Book Lovers, Social Workers, Lovers of Old Romance, of History and Art.

MOTORING in EUROPE
All about it.

AROUND THE WORLD
Unequaled itineraries. Best arrangements. Sailing Sept. 6, Oct. 4, 25.

JAPAN
Mar. 21, April 5, 18, June 21, Sept. 6, 19, Oct. 4. Independent tours.

H. W. DUNNING & CO.
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Blackstone Hotel, Chicago, Ill.
Pacific Travel Bureau
798 Market St., San Francisco, Cal.

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If you want your son to spend the summer in the Alps with a safe and experienced guide, write to **Professor F. Anderegg, Oberlin, Ohio.**

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30th Year. Limited Parties. Exceptional Advantages. Strictly first class. Write **Dr. and Mrs. H. S. PAINE, Glens Falls, N. Y.**

YOUNG LADIES wishing to join a small private party for four months' travel abroad, sailing in May, apply to Mrs. FLINT, 6212 Jefferson Ave., Chicago, Ill.

A **LADY** of fifty, experienced in travel, will chaperon two young girls through Europe. Interview in New York or Philadelphia. Address Randolph, 297, Outlook.

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Make your plans at leisure. Start today. Get our TRAVEL LETTER No. 4. Handsome literature, booklets, and the Hotel Guide. **All free.**

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HIGH GRADE TOUR. Small, select party, personally conducted. Moderate prices, 60 to 69 days. $500 to $575. Fourth season. Mrs. Nelson B. Chester, Caldwell, N. J.

EUROPE Chaperoning, conducting, by American lady. 12 years' traveling experience; 3 foreign languages. References. 91, Outlook.

EUROPE BEST TOURS BEST RATES
Tenth Season. Circulars.
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One thorough comprehensive tour through best of Scotland, England, Europe, designed for those with modest pocketbooks. Experienced leadership. Kilbon, Ashton, S. Dak.

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Delightful journeys are our Spring and Summer Tours. Sailings March, April, June. Popular Tour in June, 72 days, $515. **Motor Tours a Specialty.** Send for information. PANTLIND TOURS, 612 Euclid Ave., Cleveland.

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EUROPE

IN A

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NORWAY and SWEDEN General tour of Europe, including Norway and Sweden. Small party of ladies. June to September. 225, Outlook.

EUROPE 60 Days $400. Few vacancies in select party sailing July 1. COLLEGE EUROPEAN TOURS, REG. Box 31, Brooklyn, N. Y.

EUROPE Select 1911 Tour only **$250**
New plans for travel. Party organizers wanted.
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BLOOMFIELD, N. J.
The standard for travel. Mediterranean and coronation March 30th.

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2,000 at one cent each. Greek Handbook by Edmund Von Mach, 1 vol., $1.50. Italian Handbooks, 2 vols., $1.50 each.
Send two-cent stamp for catalogue.
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Italy, Switzerland, The Rhine, Berlin, Paris and London. Tour leaving July 1. Address J. R. Monroe, 392 Clinton Avenue, Brooklyn.

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Sailing June 24. Private party. Moderate cost. Mrs. SHELTON, Winter Hill, Boston, Mass.

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BEST TO ORIENT EUROPE NORWAY

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44th Annual Series of Tours *de Luxe* to Egypt, the Nile, Holy Land, Turkey, Greece, etc., leave March 11. The most comprehensive pleasure tours through the East ever organized.

EUROPE Tours *de Luxe* and Vacation Tours for 1911. Many visit *London for Coronation of KING GEORGE V.* Hotels and Seats for Processions reserved.

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206 Broadway, 264 Fifth Ave., N. Y.
Boston, Philadelphia, Chicago, San Francisco, Montreal, Toronto, etc.
Cook's Travellers' Cheques are Good All Over the World.

Select Limited **JOHNSON TOURS** Booklets and map June 10, 24—100, 90 days—Azores, Madeira, Gibraltar, Spain, Algiers, Europe. Low rate tours same ships. W. A. JOHNSON, 917 Madison Ave., Baltimore.

$385 **ITALY** to **ENGLAND.** Rhone Glacier, five Alpine passes, Rhine, Dresden, Berlin, Holland, Paris. July, Aug. I. S. BURTON, 371 Harvard St., Cambridge, Mass.

EUROPE Best tours. Lowest prices. Small parties. Sailing June and July. Itineraries of EDWIN JONES, 462 Putnam Ave., Brooklyn, N. Y. **Write for terms to organizers small parties.**

The Westminster Travel Party way is efficient, reasonable. Japan party sails March 8, $695. Ten parties to Europe, 1911. Get Booklet A. Fulton, Mo.

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"FRANCONIA," MARCH 11
Egypt, Palestine, Europe, England. Visit Palestine when wild flowers bloom. 101 days. Everything first class. Best tour leaving New York next spring. We can prove it. Address E. E. VIOLETT, 8,112, Outlook.

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EUROPE, $200–$800
Exceptional tours at exceptional prices. HARRIET BUCK, Woburn, Mass.

A high grade, inclusive tour of European Capitals at moderate cost. Conducted by a Northern college professor and chaperoned by a cultured Southern lady. 235, Outlook.

Robson's Old World Tours
Spring party completed. Next tour sails July 3d. Exclusively first class. For itineraries address Mrs. EDWARD A. ROBSON, Yonkers, N. Y.

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SPAIN, RIVIERA, &c., $385. Other tours. Parties 15 only. June-Sept. C. A. TURRELL, Prof. Mod. Langs., Univ. of Arizona, Tucson.

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with George Sawyer Kellogg, formerly instructor History of Art, Columbia University. Six years' residence in Italy, with travel and conducting. June, July, August. Italy, Switzerland, Rhine, Holland, France, England. Party of twelve. 25, Outlook.

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Cherry Blossom Festival Tour
To Japan and China. Sails March 21.
Summer Tour Round the World. Sails June 6 from San Francisco. A Vacation Period Tour.
South America in Summer. Sailing July 8, Returning October 3. Our late Summer is their late Winter and Spring—a delightful season.
Vacation Tour to Japan. Sailing from San Francisco June 28 or July 12, Returning in September.
Round the World in 1911-12. Departures in September, October, January.
Our methods appeal To the Best Type of Travelers. Send for announcements.
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Oriental Easter Tour, March 18.
81 days, small club. Specialists as leaders.
Spring Cultural Tour, March 29.
90 days, 8 countries. Unexcelled conductor. Also **Summer Tours.** Send for booklet.

British Isles Tour. $250
Berlin, Athens, Rome, London $400
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Mexico and Yucatan. $400
S. H. Longley, 314 Main St., Worcester, Mass.

EUROPE THREE CHOICE TOURS
Fourth Season
Experienced conductors. THE DEAN TOURS, 161 Devonshire St., Boston, Mass.

Ideal Summer Tour Through EUROPE
Comfortably, reasonably, for cultured people.
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EUROPE 78 days, sailing June 24th. A select party in charge of an experienced conductor. Address Mrs. G. M. HARMON, Tufts College, Mass.

EUROPE Party of six sail Apr. 29th. Delightful itinerary, including the Dolomites. Return in Sept. Experienced leadership. $1,200 inclusive. 295 Outlook.

EUROPE. Comprehensive University Tours. Splendid leaders, reasonable rates. Organizers of small parties wanted. **American Travel Club, Wilmington, Delaware**

TO EUROPE IN 1911
10 TOURS UNDER ESCORT
Itineraries sent on request
Special inducements to organizers
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DAVIDSON'S TOURS
Europe 38 to 68 Days $215 up
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Ideal Temperance Hotel. American quarter. 250 guests. Ap't & Bkft from $1.25. Dinner 75c.

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FIRST CLASS
Finest Position. Moderate Prices.

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West Indies, South America and The Canal Zone

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From New York March 4th

Visiting St. Thomas, Martinique, Curacoa, Haiti, Cuba

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Interesting side trips including rail to Panama Canal.

Apply to Local Agents for particulars, or Pleasure Cruise Dept., 9 B'way, N.Y.

BERMUDA. Sailing from New York. 11 days. S.S. "Oceana," 8,000 tons register. Price $61 to $83, inclusive. First class. Sail April 27th. Experienced conductor. Address R. FOSTER STONE, Johnstown, New York.

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U. S. Grant Hotel, San Diego Open. (A city within its walls.) Absolutely fireproof. Most equable climate in the world. Booklet. J. H. HOLMES, Mgr., For. of Green, Pasadena.

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Crest View Sanatorium

Greenwich, Ct.—First-class in all respects; home comforts. H. M. HITCHCOCK, M.D.

Dr. Givens' Sanitarium

For NERVOUS and mild MENTAL diseases. Has separate cottages for ALCOHOL and DRUG patients. Address DR. GIVENS, Stamford, Conn.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

THE HAMILTON

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A select family and transient hotel; conveniently located; thoroughly comfortable and homelike. Good table. American plan. Rates, $2.50 up per day. Special rates by week, month, and season. Booklet.
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LAKESIDE HOTEL (on Lake Weir). Healthful, high, rolling pine land. Orange grove. Fishing, hunting. Ill. booklet. L. T. CLAWSON, Weirsdale, Fla.

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DENMARK INN. Open for the winter. Steam heat throughout, electric lights, modern plumbing. Sleighing, coasting, snowshoeing, the best of ice-fishing. Special rates to parties. Same management as Wyonegonic and Winona Camps. Address C. E. COBB, Denmark, Maine.

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FOREST GLEN, MARYLAND

Its elevation, noted **Springs**, refined environment, and **trolley service to Washington, D. C.**, make this **Rest Resort** ideal for the most fastidious.
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"The salt breath of the sea brings health"

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MONTCLAIR HOTEL on the Heights of New Jersey

1 hour from N. Y. via D. L. & W. R. R.

For those seeking Rest, change of air, and Homelike Surroundings.
HOTEL OF REFINEMENT—OPEN ALL SEASON
TRY IT
T. EDMUND KRUMBHOLZ
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Newfoundland, New Jersey
A MODERN HEALTH RESORT
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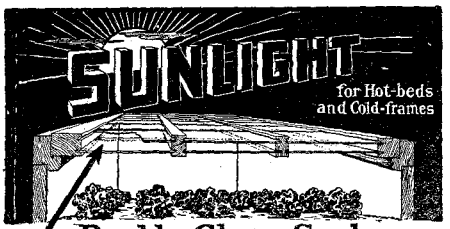

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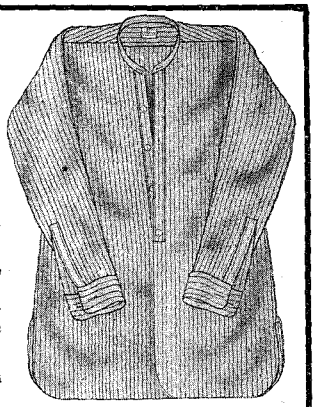

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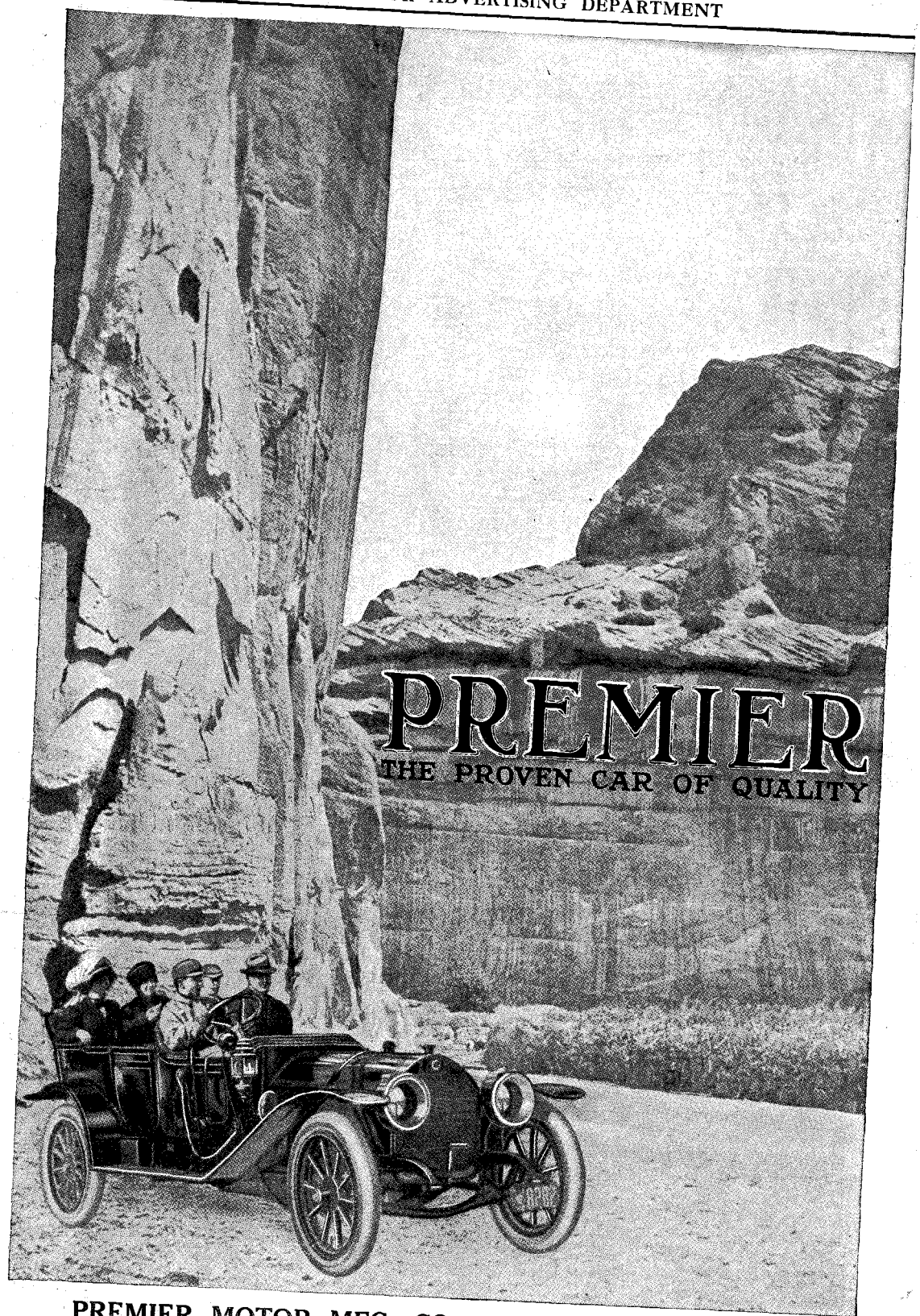

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